TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD

CHANGING GOALS AND RESPONSIBILITIES AMONG THE HEALTH PROFESSIONS Harry J. Carman 1

EDUCATION FOR PROFESSIONAL ROLES IN COMPREHENSIVE HEALTH SERVICE John L. Caughey, Jr. 9

NEED FOR REAPPRAISAL OF FISCAL POLICIES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION T. L. Hungate 19

NEW DIRECTIONS IN INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS Harry A. Scott 29

DEVELOPMENT PLANNING RELATES TO COLLEGE PROGRAM AND FACULTY Abel Hanson 38

BOOK REVIEWS 47

OCTOBER 1956

TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD VOL. 58, NO. 1, OCTOBER, 1956

The TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD is issued eight times a year, monthly except June, July, August, and September. The subscription price is $3.00 per year; foreign postage, 50 cents. Single issues are sold at 45 cents each. Publication offices, 1407 Sherwood Avenue, Richmond, Va., and 525 West 120th Street, New York 27, N. Y. Editorial and general offices at the latter address. Printed in the United States of America. Second-class mail privileges authorized at Richmond, Virginia. Copyright 1956, by Teachers College, Columbia University.

EDITORIAL STAFF

MAX R. BRUNSTETTER, *Editor*
LAWRENCE A. CREMIN, *Associate Editor*
JEAN B. TANNER, *Production Editor*

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

ARNO BELLACK
JOHN L. HUTCHINSON
ANNE S. MCKILLOP
RAYMOND PATOUILLET
E. EDMUND REUTTER, JR.
FRANCIS SHOEMAKER
EUGENIA K. SPALDING
KENNETH D. WANN
SLOAN WAYLAND

BUSINESS MANAGER
HAMDEN L. FORKNER, JR.

The TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD aims to present stimulating reading for educational workers interested in broad professional competence. Today the teacher, the counselor, the school nurse, the administrator—everyone in education—needs insights and facts from many areas of professional activity. It is hoped that the reader, whatever his specialty, will constantly find in these pages ideas he can put to good use.

Articles in THE RECORD do not represent a single point of view. Fruitful thinking comes often from the challenge of opposing ideas. Therefore the opinions of the contributors are not necessarily those of THE RECORD editors, and are not intended to reflect institutional policy.

PROFESSIONAL PROBLEMS OF TEACHERS

by the late ALBERT J. HUGGETT, Associate Professor of Education, Michigan State University, and T. M. STINNETT, Executive Secretary, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association

Emphasizing teachers' responsibilities for improving their working conditions and for determining professional standards, this book presents material future teachers as well as practicing teachers need to function effectively as members of their profession—in professional organizations, in their school and in the community. The authors have compiled the pertinent information with which one should be familiar. They discuss such basic problems as certification, professional advancement, salary policies, retirement tenure, professional ethics and public relations. Attractive pictograms, charts, photographs, and drawings supplement the text. *1956 468 pages* $5.25

DIAGNOSTIC AND REMEDIAL TEACHING, Revised Edition

by GLENN MYERS BLAIR, University of Illinois

Now designed for both the secondary and the elementary school teacher . . . new insights into the remedial teaching processes . . . new materials and methods for overcoming basic pupil disabilities. *1956 409 pages* $5.00

THEORY AND PRACTICE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

by EARL S. JOHNSON, University of Chicago

Presents fresh perspectives on the nature and teaching of social studies . . . places the social studies within the context of both general education and society. *1956 476 pages* $5.75

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN OUR DEMOCRACY

by LAWRENCE A. CREMIN, Teachers College, Columbia University, and MERLE L. BORROWMAN, University of Wisconsin

Discusses the problems, issues and aims of public education in a way that stimulates learning and teaching . . . implements realistic personal case histories by numerous practical projects and activities. *1956 226 pages* $2.80

The Macmillan Company

60 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK 11, N.Y.

Distributors in Canada
BRETT-MACMILLAN LTD.
70 HOLLINGER ROAD, TORONTO 16

New McGRAW-HILL Books

PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

By PAUL R. MORT and DONALD H. ROSS, Teachers College, Columbia University. McGraw-Hill Series in Education. New Second Edition. IN PRESS

Revised, expanded, updated . . . this new edition presents a comprehensive treatment of the underlying principles of school administration derived from the objectives of education and from the common sense of culture. It shows the bearing of these principles upon all aspects of administration—personnel problems, curriculum problems, finance problems, school-building problems, and legal problems. Questions and exercises are carefully selected to provide a laboratory development which will give the student a growing understanding of the synthesis.

ADMINISTRATION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

By HARLAN L. HAGMAN, Drake University. McGraw-Hill Series in Education. 362 pages, $5.00

Another outstanding work by Dean Hagman which attempts to provide for the elementary school principal in particular an opportunity to develop a broader base of understanding for his administration. The organization and argument are addressed to the student's developing through his study and experience a professional philosophy and attitudes favorable to his insightful approach to the problems which will confront him as an elementary school principal. Emphasis is placed on the concept that administration is in essence a service function, and that all administration, whether educational, industrial, or governmental, is based on the same fundamental principles.

ADULT EDUCATION

By HOMER KEMPFER, National Home Study Council. McGraw-Hill Series in Education. 446 pages, $5.50

Here is a comprehensive, well-organized work which treats systematically the practical problems an adult educator faces, and focuses the findings of research on their solution. Major organized approaches to each area of adult education are discussed in detail. It draws upon research findings, pulls together experience from practitioners in a variety of situations, and suggests solutions to many recurring problems of program administrators. Here are new facts, new attitudes and methods, and a new and more confident approach to the problems of everyday living . . . showing the relationship between adult programs of all other community agencies and pointing the way to a community-wide program of adult education.

TECHNIQUES OF COUNSELING

By JANE WARTERS, University of Southern California. 396 pages, $4.75

This comprehensive text covers all the commonly used techniques and the latest developments and trends in student personnel work. It deals specifically with tests, inventories, observation reports, self-reports, cumulative personnel records, case studies, and case conferences—all the instruments and procedures of special importance to the student personnel worker. It emphasizes *methods* of guidance and how they may be applied to practical situations.

Send for Copies on Approval

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, INC.
330 West 42nd Street New York 36, N. Y.

VOL. 58, NO. 1 OCTOBER 1956

TEACHERS COLLEGE
RECORD

Changing Goals and Responsibilities Among the Health Professions*

HARRY J. CARMAN

DEAN EMERITUS, COLUMBIA COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

We live in an age of terrific stress and strain. In all parts of the world, old traditions and customs, old ways of life, and old institutional arrangements are being challenged. In reality, we are living in an age of great revolutionary upheaval. Two ways of life, each resting upon an ideology diametrically opposed to the other, struggle for domination. The one with its emphasis upon freedom and the human worth and dignity of the individual is battling against statism and human regimentation with their appeal to brute force and utter disregard for individual liberty. The two awful wars engulfing much of the world during the first half of the twentieth century were merely phases of an age-old conflict between those who champion the welfare of humanity and those who would enslave and exploit human beings for selfish ends.

The struggle between these existing ideologies continues undiminished. The so-called "cold war," which at times threatens to develop into a series of "hot" wars or even into a catastrophic world war, is an ever-present nightmare for humankind. A recession of faith in democracy and in democratic methods in many parts of the globe is further evidence that change is in the saddle and riding hard. In fact, it seems more than likely that the second half of the century, upon which we have now entered, will witness further changes dwarfing or

* Annie W. Goodrich Lecture delivered at Teachers College, Columbia, April 9, 1956.

Dr. Carman is president emeritus of New York Adult Educational Council; chairman, Humanities Division, John Hay Whitney Foundation; executive director, Japan-American Intellectual Interchange Program; and member of the Board of Higher Education of the City of New York.

overshadowing the revolutionary transformations of the past fifty years.

Vitally affecting the direction of this revolutionary change will be man's never-ending search for truth and his continued dependence upon education as the principal vehicle for its dissemination. For every individual, the discovery of truth and its dissemination is an endless process. It is the highway which he builds and constantly remodels for his journey through life. The direction of his journey and the distance he may go will depend in large measure upon his spiritual and mental resources.

NEED FOR BALANCED EDUCATION

Education is one of society's primary sources of strength. The total worth of any nation is measured in terms of its human and natural resources. The value of the citizen to his community depends in last analysis upon the educational, health, moral, and spiritual opportunities which are available to him and the use which he makes of these in his life.

Even today, in some quarters our professions—law, journalism, architecture, engineering, as well as nursing, medicine, dentistry, pharmacology, surgery and other branches of health science—are regarded as primarily vocational in character. Those who hold this point of view have little or no conception of the meaning of a liberal education. They regard education as mere preparation to earn a living.

Surely no one can quarrel with the desirability of a person's learning how to earn an honest living. But there is vastly more to education than learning a particular skill. Not only do we have to acquire a livelihood, but each of us has to live with himself or herself. Irrespective of what our profession may be, all of us have to live with others. We are citizens of a community, be it large or small, local, national, or world. As such, we have joint responsibilities to discharge, problems to solve, and obligations to bear. The mere knowledge of a skill and its use to acquire material security falls far short of the requisites so necessary for a full and rich life, intellectually and spiritually, to which each of us is entitled and should enjoy.

Education should be a liberating process—liberating in the sense that it frees us from ignorance, superstition, fear, and unnecessary physical handicaps. Education at all levels should help us to discover ourselves—our strengths, weaknesses, aptitudes, and latent possibilities. It should widen and extend our perspective, help us to gain as full an understanding as possible of our society with all its ideological and institutional complexities. Certainly, too, education should train us to be literate and articulate and to have respect for facts. Each of us, irrespective of profession or occupation, should know how to acquire factual knowledge and the criteria by which factual statements can be tested. Education should teach us how to think. This means training in responsible evaluation and decision. This, in turn, involves flexibility of the mind and the ability to escape from the multiple provincialisms which bedevil mankind.

Education should buttress us against side-stepping controversial issues. All our lives we will be confronted directly or indirectly with social, economic, moral, religious and political problems. Many of the patients to whom those of us in the health sciences minister will, on occasion, raise perplexing questions of a controversial nature. These we should not avoid merely because they are controversial. College-educated men and

women, whatever their profession, should be encouraged to use their minds, exercise their wills, and share in the management of affairs as a means of learning how to do things better. Each of us should be constructively critical of existing mores and institutions. In a democrtic society, controversy within limits is healthy; complete unanimity over any considerable period of time may mean stagnation. A democracy flourishes on differences of interest and opinion regarding many things for many reasons. It is important in the democratic state to differ without emotional violence.

What we need—and what every person should insist upon having—is a broad, balanced education. No one should be permitted to specialize in a field or profession until he or she has had a sound grounding in the three basic disciplines—science, the social sciences, and the humanities. This will serve as an indispensable foundation for a professional or vocational career. Unfortunately, in many of our colleges and professional schools we are still graduating men and women who expect to be nurses, accountants, librarians, doctors, journalists, engineers, or social workers with little or no interest in the cultural implications of their profession, much less in items that would enable them to formulate for themselves a satisfying philosophy of life and to be of maximum service to society.

Vocationally and technologically, America is the wonder of the world, but if measured by the demand for basic virtues, aesthetic appreciation, political fitness, an acquaintance with the past, broad sympathies, and a disinterested understanding of the springs of human action, we have fallen far short of our potentialities. The social, political, and aesthetic incapacity of the person without a balanced education and trained only in the techniques of his work or profession is likely to be appalling.

The reasons for the prevailing atmosphere of vocationalism and overspecialization are several. In the first place we are a pragmatic, materialistic people. Until recently we have had relatively little concern for things cultural. We have been interested primarily in getting on in the world, in know-how, in climbing up the social-economic ladder. Our forebears found a sparsely peopled, richly endowed continent which they proceeded to conquer and exploit. We have inherited their spirit and tradition of materialistic conquest and success in "doing." We are still impatient and intolerant toward things and ideas which we believe will be of no assistance to us in our business or profession. Remembering these characteristics of ours will help us to understand why students intending to be nurses or looking forward to other professions in the field of health, endeavor to avoid taking certain courses. "This won't help me in my profession," and "I'm going to be a nurse or a doctor and this has nothing to do with health or medicine" are typical statements which any pre-health counselor has heard innumerable times. It is this eternal quest for large monetary income which accounts in part for modern advertising and the turning of talented youth from the teaching profession to such fields as communications and public relations.

THE LIBERALLY EDUCATED PERSON

A liberal education should be defined in terms of the end product desired—in terms of the qualities of the individual and the functions he or she is to fulfill as a member of a special profession, as an educated and wisely motivated citizen of a democracy, as a cultivated human be-

ing—"good company for himself," as Dean Ingraham of the University of Wisconsin expresses it.

We have no quarrel with those who hold science and technology in high regard. Unquestionably science when true to itself in humble, probing, open-minded inquiry, is liberalizing in itself and should be one of the foundation stones of a liberal education. Indeed, its claims to cultural value are fully as great as those of the humanities or the social sciences. Rather it is the lack of balance which disturbs us. We have little patience with those who would retard research and technological advance on the ground that they have outrun the humanities and the social sciences. Scientific research is imperative if we would understand the world in which we live. But while science and research may and do add to our factual knowledge about the world, they emphatically do not themselves furnish us with formulas as to how this factual knowledge can best be used for the enhancement of man's welfare. Science is amoral. It furnishes us with no ethical or moral codes; it merely illumines and affects the material conditions of our existence. Richard Jefferies was right when, many years ago, he declared that "mechanization increases convenience—in no degree does it confer physical and moral perfection." And more recently, Vannevar Bush, a scientist and not a moralist wrote: "The mastery science gives of energy and of material things may send our race careening to its doom unless we gain the wisdom and sanity to control our course. . . . To build this wisdom into the hearts of men is the great task of liberal education." The scientist must be concerned with more than science, for science cannot be allowed to continue by and unto itself alone; it must be interpreted in terms of all the values that contribute meaning to human life.

How can a person whose profession is based upon science, for example, really get the most out of life if he or she knows little or nothing about literature and the fine arts. Good literature can contribute greatly to the effectiveness of those pursuing a nursing or medical career because literature is concerned with human activity and human values. The better her understanding of human beings, the better nurse or doctor she will be. The nurse, even more than the doctor or the surgeon, should have an understanding of the inner psychological and emotional needs of those to whom she ministers. Indeed, in every health problem there is a sociological and psychological as well as a biological component. Her study of good literature in college will not only enrich and deepen her knowledge of human nature but will also add to her intellectual stature and enjoyment.

And the same can be said of music and the fine arts. They are media of expression. Every work of art is a significant utterance, a sensitive and meaningful report by the artist, in his chosen medium and distinctive idiom, of how he sees life and human destiny, how he responds to the multiple impacts upon him of cosmic, natural, and social forces and events. To encounter and enter into a work of art imaginatively and discerningly is, in short, a unique experience of unquestionable intrinsic value to the individual. It is music and art also that satisfy in some measure at least that inner longing or craving for the beautiful.

How can the nurse or for that matter any professional man or woman discharge his or her responsibilities as a citizen if he or she has little acquaintance with history and the social sciences? In his home neighborhood every citizen—and those in the health professions are

citizens—should take an active interest in such institutions as schools, libraries, police and fire protection, and housing, and in such problems as public health, juvenile delinquency, and the safeguarding of civil rights. As a citizen of that larger community, the nation, the professional person is faced with all kinds of issues—some domestic, some international. How can a man act intelligently about any of these matters, all of which are deeply rooted in the past, if he knows little or nothing about the history of his community and his country and of other parts of the world as well? How can he, for example, participate in shaping labor legislation for the second half of twentieth century America, or even have an informed opinion on the subject, if he is ignorant of the conditions and role of labor in the nineteenth century? Or how can he have a responsible opinion on present-day Spain unless he knows at least something of the history of that country before Franco came into control?

History enables everyone of us, irrespective of calling, to have a better understanding of the present. From history we learn about problems similar to those of our time and how they were handled by human beings of another day—of their successes, their mistakes, and their failures. History thus broadens our vision and deepens our understanding of ourselves and of our society and its many practical problems.

The social sciences—anthropology, sociology, economics, and political institutions and processes—are no less important than history for those in health professions. The high prestige which these professions enjoy in our society and the corresponding responsibilities which are theirs; the high cost of nursing and medical care; the great difficulty of making adequate health care equally available to all; the over-all scarcity of nurses and doctors and, more particularly, their uneven distribution; the growing political influence of these professions and the social responsibilities which this influence entails—these are only a few of the aspects which call for enlightened social study and understanding by members of the health professions.

Every nurse and every doctor can hope to treat their patients properly only in so far as they understand them not only as sick people and as individual human beings but also as members of their society. The members of the health professions no less than their fellow citizens must wrestle with such pressing problems as population. The average life span from the days of the Roman Empire to the Middle Ages was twenty-five years. By 1850 it had lengthened to approximately forty years and a hundred years later to almost seventy. The increase in the world's population since 1900 exceeds the total population of the world in 1900. By 1975 it will have more than doubled in twenty-five years, and in all probability the day that Malthus foresaw will be close at hand. This and similar problems, a knowledge of the social sciences will help us to understand.

THE CHALLENGE CONFRONTING US

Those who have embarked upon careers in the health professions, like every other American citizen, should not become so engrossed in the techniques of their profession that they lose sight of the profound revolution which now grips the world and confronts the United States with the greatest challenge it has ever faced.

How can we meet this challenge?

In the first place, we need to discover the ideals and essential features that lie

beneath the outward characteristics of American life and history. This involves an understanding and an appreciation of the ideas, institutions, and traditions which are the background and substance of free society.

Second, we need to realize that our great strength as a people and a nation is founded not only upon an enormous wealth of natural resources but upon a philosophy whose basic principles include faith in and dignity of the individual, civil liberty, human freedom, equality of opportunity, and responsible citizenship.

Third, we need to understand much better than we now do the meaning of the term "freedom." Does freedom mean absolute freedom to do anything we please—to cheat the other fellow, to blacken his reputation, to violate the law (especially if we think we can do so without being detected)? Or by freedom do we mean not absolute freedom but freedom to think, to believe, to disbelieve, to speak, to will, to choose. We are free when we are masters of ourselves, when we have learned to utilize fully and creatively our individual abilities—intellectual, physical, emotional. People are not free who are handicapped with unnecessary psychological inhibitions, who are victims of preventable disease, who harbor irrational prejudices against men of differing views or other cultures or other races, or who practice religious bigotry. People are free in the degree to which they possess the tools of learning and the techniques of action, the ability to verbalize, to analyze and synthesize, to create, to organize, and to administer, and who deep in their souls have the spirit and the will to safeguard the ideals of freedom, justice, tolerance, and fair play. To be free, people must practice as well as give lip service to the Good Neighbor principle, which in essence means the recognition of the worth and dignity of each human being, regardless of race, color, creed or social status.

In the fourth place, by putting our own house in order we can fit ourselves to meet the challenge of those who would destroy our way of life. Though some progress has been made in improving the status of the Negro, in most parts of the United States he is still treated as a second-rate citizen. Discrimination in education, employment, and social life has not disappeared. Slums unfit for human habitation still house a considerable portion of our population. We frequently close our eyes to wrongdoing and injustice both at home and abroad. Some Americans even oppose recognition and support for the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights.

Finally, in this matter of putting our house in order, it is high time that we wake up to the fact that the dangers to the American way of life are not all outside the United States. The most insidious of these dangers are within. They are ignorance, suspicion, prejudice, intolerance, bigotry, hate, selfishness, corruption, the love of power for power's sake, and human exploitation and wastage. These are the items that make for international misunderstanding and becloud our national life. These festering sores which have long plagued the world are the very antithesis of those intangible inner traits upon which human greatness is founded: integrity, uprightness, breadth of vision, responsibility, unselfishness, a deep sense of fair play, excellence in thought and action, right against wrong in terms of human welfare, faith in a social order which cherishes freedom and opportunity for social betterment, and an absence in one's soul of irrational prejudices against people of differing views, of other cultures, or of other races and religions.

No realist who is acquainted with the world situation can doubt for a moment that we need to strengthen our defenses against the enemies within and without who threaten our nation. But we should realize that military power alone cannot permanently change the tide of world events. In the last analysis, the greatest power on earth stems from unregimented men and women dedicated to human betterment.

CONCERN WITH VALUES

I cannot conclude this discussion without mentioning two items which are the product of long years of observation, experience, and meditation on my part.

The first relates to what may well be called personal inventory. If you would make the most of your opportunity for a richly rewarding life to yourselves and to society, I strongly urge each of you to ask himself or herself the following questions, not once but frequently.

1. What are my standards of thought and conduct?
2. What are my ideals?
3. Do I have a philosophy of life, and if so, do the concepts of excellence and self-perfection have a place in it?
4. In terms of what is good and bad, individually and socially, what is my capacity wisely to evaluate, select, create, control, and sacrifice?
5. Do I emphasize quantity at the expense of quality?
6. Do I think only of self?
7. Do I mentally erect a defensive barrier which cuts me off from those of different racial extraction, color, creed, party, and nationality?
8. What of my daily life? Is there conscious direction to what I think and do?
9. Am I a slave to a self-satisfying but inefficient and meaningless routine?
10. Am I the victim of passing whims and external pressures which in the long run make for a haphazard, purposeless, futile existence?
11. Am I losing perspective and ceasing to grow intellectually?
12. Am I ceasing to be a curious, inquiring, contemplative human being, and instead living in a little routinized world of my own?

My second item also concerns values. Some there are who will tell you that ours is an age of science in which nothing matters that does not lend itself to scientific evaluation, and that morals and ethical standards are outside of this area. But whether outside or not, no one would seriously dispute Toynbee, who, in reviewing the fruits of our technological culture, comments that "Man is ethically unprepared for so great a bounty. In the slower evolution of morals he is still unfit for the tremendous responsibility it entails. The command of nature has been put into his hands before he knows how to command himself." Our technological advances have outstripped our moral development. As Dean Severinghaus of the College of Physicians and Surgeons of Columbia University so well expresses it: "Education has kept pace with our rising standards of living, yes, has been largely responsible for their rise, but our standards for life have not kept pace with our standard of living."

Other persons who have given thought to this matter concur. Listen to Robert Maynard Hutchins: "Civilization can be saved only by a moral, intellectual and spiritual revolution to match the scientific, technological and economic revolution in which we are now living." The introduction to Dr. Henry P. Van Dusen's latest book supports the Hutchins point of view: "Through all the current diagnoses of civilization's sickness, which shadows most men's minds with appre-

hension and some with desperation, there runs a single note, like a persistent and monotonous *motif*. The knowledge and skills of modern civilization have outrun the moral and spiritual resources for their direction and control. In this land of plenty, glutted with wealth, we lack the essential ethical currency for its use, and so we are threatened with cultural bankruptcy." As Dr. Van Dusen indicates, virtually every thoughtful national leader would subscribe to this statement. Thus at the dedication of the great Palomar Observatory, Dr. Raymond B. Fosdick focused his dedicatory address in these words: "Knowledge is not enough. . . . Unless we can anchor our knowledge to moral foundations, the ultimate result will be dust and ashes. . . . The towering enemy of man is not his science but his moral inadequacy."

More recently Thomas E. Dewey, former Governor of the State of New York, declared: "Our problem is within ourselves. We have found the means to blow the world physically apart. Spiritually, we have yet to find the means to put together the world's broken pieces." And our present Secretary of State, John Foster Dulles, insists: "Men's ability to control the physical depends upon the moral. . . . There is no short cut. It is not possible by the stroke of the pen to make up for accumulated moral deficiencies."

General Omar F. Bradley, now retired from military life, voiced the same opinion: "Humanity is in danger of being trapped in this world by its moral adolescence. Our knowledge of science has already outstripped our capacity to control it. We have too many men of science; too few men of God. We have grasped the mystery of the atom and rejected the Sermon on the Mount. Man is stumbling blindly through a spiritual darkness while toying with the precarious secrets of life and death. The world has achieved brilliance without wisdom, power without conscience. Ours is a world of nuclear giants and ethical infants."

Further citation of evidence is unnecessary. Few humans there are—at least in this country—who will not agree with Dr. Van Dusen's conclusion that the imperative need of today, overshadowing all other unnumbered and urgent needs, is firmer and stronger character, higher integrity, larger spiritual vision, unimpeachable and unshakable fidelity, and and what one of our foremost statesmen keeps pleading for—"a righteous and dynamic faith."

The crisis which we face is not new. "The rapid progress true science makes, occasions my regretting sometimes that I was born too soon; it is impossible to imagine the height to which may become in a thousand years the power of men over matter. O, that moral science were in as fair a way of improvement, that men would cease to be wolves to one another and that human beings would at length learn what they now improperly call humanity." This was Benjamin Franklin speaking nearly two centuries ago in Philadelphia. What Franklin saw was the development and danger of power which is the product of technology; and what he saw with almost prophetic vision was that this power might inevitably be wielded by wicked men or at least by men of small vision to the detriment of humanity. In the accumulation of things through our newly acquired power, have we failed to heed or preferred not to recognize the importance of the historian Macaulay's warning that the objective of our technical age seems to be "not to make men perfect but to make imperfect men more comfortable."

Education for Professional Roles in Comprehensive Health Service*

JOHN L. CAUGHEY, JR.

ASSOCIATE DEAN, SCHOOL OF MEDICINE, WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY

PERHAPS the basic problem with which professional education must contend is the tremendous and progressive accumulation of new facts and techniques. Inextricably mixed up with this accumulation of facts and techniques in the health professions is the phenomenon of specialization. The specialist digs deep and produces new facts and techniques. Specialists then multiply in order that the new information and skill can be used in service to patients and in further, more intensive exploration of the unknown. This process has been gaining acceleration in all aspects of our society. In the health field it has produced some magnificent results which enable us to live longer and with much less effort than previous generations. Forty years ago there were many who believed that this process of specialization, accumulation of more detailed information about disease, followed by more intensive specialization would solve all our health problems. Today there is more skepticism about the role of specialization. We seek to define its place, to understand its limitations, and to find other techniques with which to attack health problems not presently susceptible to solution by our specialists.

If, as educators, we are to contend with the problems of specialization, we must have some concept of its role in our health professions. Certainly the specialist is eminently qualified to advance knowledge in his field through research. The role of the specialist in teaching is less clear. He is obviously the one to train future specialists, and he should teach established skills of his specialty to others so that these skills can be widely applied. His ability to communicate basic principles and general professional attitudes to beginning students is not related to his specialization but to the degree to which he has retained his own awareness of general principles during the time he has spent digging in his restricted special field.

In respect to service, the specialist clearly has the responsibility to apply his particular knowledge and skill in behalf of patients. But unless he limits his service obligations, he will eventually be overwhelmed by them and then will fail to meet his important obligations in research and teaching. And it is still a question whether health service by an aggregation

* Annie W. Goodrich Lecture delivered at Teachers College, Columbia, April 16, 1956.

After graduation from Harvard Medical School in 1930, Dr. Caughey was for fifteen years on the staff of the Columbia-Presbyterian Medical Center. At Western Reserve since 1945, he has played an active part in discussions of medical education which led to the introduction of a new teaching program in the School of Medicine in 1952.

of specialists is ever adequate for all of a patient's needs, or capable of providing a satisfying patient–physician relationship.

In other words, the specialist should develop new facts and techniques and, insofar as possible, hand them on to others when their proper uses are defined. In this way the new knowledge can be applied widely, and the specialist is free to devote his time to care of the most difficult cases, to teaching, and to search for further knowledge and skill. Obviously there is no place in this philosophy for any proprietary control of a particular technique by a specialty group after the technique can be effectively applied by other professional persons or by subprofessional and technical personnel. Furthermore, this formula suggests that a specialty should gradually disappear unless it is developing new facts and skills. If it does not go forward, it should wither and die as its established knowledge and skills become common property. This is true whether the specialization embraces a whole professional group or only a segment of a recognized profession.

There are some pernicious qualities of specialization which must be kept in mind. It tends to breed isolation and a sense of superiority. By limiting his responsibilities to a field he knows well, and acting primarily as a consultant to people who know less in this field than he does, the specialist is likely to see other people's inadequacies and mistakes. It is easy for him to forget that he himself has little competence in many areas, possibly even in most areas other than the one to which he has devoted his professional career.

The unfavorable aspects of specialization are particularly noticeable in some of those who specialize in academic life. University departmentalization provides opportunity for intensive scholarly activity, but it is also a fine mechanism for promotion of isolation. There is a traditional separation of town and gown. In the health professions this may be aggravated by the fact that those who develop outstanding professional competence in the university setting, with all its facilities, consultants, and assistants, often fail to appreciate the difficulties faced by the practitioners out on the firing line, who must do the best they can without such help. The unique feature of the academic specialists, of course, is that they control the selection, training, evaluation, and counseling of all the recruits for the profession, and therefore are in constant conflict with practitioners about how these obligations should be met.

Without elaborating further on the joint phenomena of specialization and the progressive accumulation of new facts and techniques, let us consider their impact on professional education under three headings: the curriculum, the attitudes of students, and the difficulties of interprofessional cooperation in education and service.

THE CURRICULUM

The accumulation of new facts and techniques and the multiplication of specialties within each of the health professions have fragmented the teaching program. The student is exposed to a series of unrelated courses often thrown together in a haphazard way because of tradition, or the availability of some class hours, or the convenience of the instructor. In his effort to be sure that the students learn all he thinks they should know, the specialist instructor often resorts to highly organized didactic presentation of his facts, and to an examination system which tests the students' memorization of facts. This, in effect, focuses the students' time and energy on *only* those things which are likely to appear in a

written examination. The pressure to "cover" each subject to the degree sought by the specialist instructor is so great that neither the instructor nor the student has time to relate the material to other subjects. The student has no opportunity to think about why he is studying it or how it will be used in his professional career.

The truth of the matter is that today it is impossible to "cover" in any professional curriculum all of the facts and techniques which are available and which might be useful to a professional person. It is no longer possible to include material in a curriculum just because it is important. There is so much that is important that to include it all would be to burden the student beyond his endurance. We must be selective, and as professional educators we must develop some basis for our selectivity, and some means for making it effective. Only when this has been done can we have any success in helping the student integrate the various phases of his learning into a meaningful experience.

ATTITUDES OF STUDENTS

The attitudes of students is a subject to which we could devote a great deal of discussion. It is easy to be critical at times, or even discouraged. We must remember that our present recruits in the health professions were born in a period of severe economic depression, and have grown up in an atmosphere of hot and cold war, with all the attendant anxiety, hostility, and insecurity.

In their previous educational experiences many of our students have found little intellectual stimulus, or challenge to full development of their personal resources. In high school and college they have seen emphasis on taking courses in order to complete academic requirements to earn a degree which will have social or purely vocational value. In many of these settings they have had no significant personal contact with teachers, have been graded only on their ability to write out factual information on examinations, and have found little reason to exercise initiative or resourcefulness in their academic life.

When professional schools continue the process of cramming factual information into the students in a setting which permits little personal contact with teachers, little initiative on the part of the student, and little guidance in the meaning of a professional role, the professional schools must accept some of the blame if the students do not develop desirable professional attitudes. It is not enough to assume that properly selected students will automatically react to the professional school situation by developing a mature sense of professional responsibility. There are so many cultural, social, and economic factors pushing the students toward a materialistic, cynical philosophy that educators in health professions must take *positive* action if they expect their students to develop counter to these pressures, and to dedicate themselves to community service in a professional health role.

INTERPROFESSIONAL COOPERATION

The difficulties of interprofessional cooperation in education and health service also deserve extensive consideration. We hear a great deal about teamwork today, but there is much confusion regarding the meaning of this term, and about the application of this concept in health service.

Because of the accumulation of facts and techniques, and the need for specialists to apply these to care of patients,

it is obvious that many professional persons may have direct personal contact with a patient who has complicated health problems. If each of these professional people exercises, *independently*, his professional prerogative of direct personal relationship with the patient, it is obvious that a chaotic situation will result, with the patient receiving many unrelated opinions. "Teamwork" is the term applied to efforts to use the many different professional skills for the benefit of the patient, but to do it in a way which is effective and intelligible. Specialized practice must be integrated for the benefit of the patient, just as compartmentalized education by specialists must be unified for the benefit of the student in a basic professional curriculum.

It is a great mistake, however, to assume that this teamwork is easy. Professional people are jealous of their individual skills and responsibilities, and do not lightly submerge these in a team effort. Communication problems multiply as more and more people are involved in the team, especially as the team members come from professional disciplines increasingly divergent in methodology and content. The use of many highly trained people in service to one patient is inevitably expensive, and at times the cost is multiplied by inefficient organization of the team. Above all, we have misunderstandings about role, about overlapping responsibilities, and about whether a team is a democratic organization or is made up of a boss and an aggregation of hired hands.

It is not appropriate here to elaborate on these difficulties. However, if we as educators in the health professions believe that teamwork is an essential element in the health services of the future, we have a clear obligation to define the problems of teamwork, to find solutions for these problems, and to educate our students so that they will be motivated toward teamwork and skillful in their performance as members of the health service team.

I have reviewed problems well known to you—the educational pressure resulting from accumulation of new facts and skills, the fragmentation of the professional curriculum, the unfavorable influences on student attitudes, and the difficulties of molding effective, personalized health service from the efforts of a team of specialists. Next I should like to say something about the solution of these problems.

It is most encouraging that in our colleges, engineering schools, and health professions there is great concern about these educational problems. Everywhere effort is being made to define objectives and improve methods. Among others, the Western Reserve medical school has been engaged for several years in an intensive examination of its program, with generous financial help from the Commonwealth Fund. What I can offer as suggestions for professional education is the result of our Faculty's efforts, and our experience with a new program inaugurated in September 1952.

Because of its concern over the fragmentation of the teaching program, our Faculty decided to eliminate departmental courses and develop an integrated, cooperative presentation of the basic medical curriculum. It was agreed that much of the specialized subject matter would, of necessity, be omitted in the four-year medical school program, and would be left for graduate, specialized teaching.

After a very strenuous period of debate, decision, and planning, the new teaching program was launched four years ago. The first year, Phase 1, is de-

voted to *normal* structure and function; the next three semesters, Phase 2, are devoted to disorders of structure and function; and the last three semesters, Phase 3, to clinical and elective programs.

The teaching in Phases 1 and 2 is done around selected subjects by Subject Committees. These are carefully chosen interdepartmental groups representing each of the disciplines which has a major contribution to make to the subject, and including in all cases at least one clinician. The student's laboratory work is carried out in a new type of "multidiscipline" laboratory in which he can do, in the one location, almost all of the laboratory work required of him, at a bench which is his throughout the year and is used by no one else.

The Subject Committee has proved to be a satisfactory mechanism for selection of what, from the tremendous amount of factual information, should be presented to the students. We believe it is desirable to have this decision made by an interdepartmental group, rather than by individual departments. The Subject-Committee method also helps to eliminate undesirable duplication found in separate departmental courses. Furthermore, since all aspects of the subject are discussed in a related manner, the presentation is intelligible to the student to an extent not found with isolated courses, whose significance may not be clear until some other course is reached in a later semester. There is also a tendency, we believe, for this integrated presentation to help the student see the application of basic sciences to clinical practice. For example, structure and function of organ systems are presented to him in terms of functional units, which are approached in the way a physician approaches a clinical problem, not as separate disciplines in Anatomy, Biochemistry, and Physiology.

The planning and cooperative execution of an interdepartmental teaching program is also a demonstration of the Faculty's interest in education, its willingness to devote time and effort to educational problems, and its ability to work as a team in spite of differences in background, training, and educational philosophy.

In approaching the problem of student attitudes, the medical faculty focused on two words, responsibility and continuity. It was agreed that since our students are carefully selected college graduates, we should regard them as junior colleagues capable of accepting increasing responsibility for their own education, for the care of patients, and for a professional role in community health services. Although thirst for knowledge, curiosity, pride, and fear were recognized as stimuli for learning, it was felt that the most common and natural stimulus for keeping a physician a student of medicine throughout his professional career, is his realization that he must learn, and keep on learning, if he is to meet his responsibilities to individual patients.

Continuity of relationship between student and patient evolved early as a means of helping the student develop a sense of responsibility for the individual patient. As our program progressed we also recognized the value of continuity of student–instructor relationships which provide a preceptoral type of teaching and an opportunity for the student to learn the attitudes and objectives of a mature physician. Finally, a third continuity of value is that of the student group, which multiplies the student's clinical scope by giving him a long-term familiarity with his colleagues' patients, but also provides a mechanism for free discussion of feelings and problems which might not be brought out in transiently organized

groups. In a persisting group each student learns that his mates have anxieties, frustrations, successes, and failures just as he does.

In addition, our Faculty recognized a problem of timing in respect to student attitudes. It was felt that the great majority of our students entered medical school with a sincere interest in a career of useful service as physicians in their community. Many of us felt that the isolation from patients in the first two years of medical school, and the tremendous pressure to learn facts and techniques, weaned the student from this attitude of dedication to the welfare of the patient, and focused him *too narrowly* on the study of disease. Because of this we were anxious to provide responsibility for self-education and for care of patients; and meaningful, continuing personal relationships among the student, the patient, the preceptor, and the student group very early in the teaching program.

It is a great temptation for me to go into detail about how we tried to attain these objectives. All I can say is that we have made some progress. From the beginning our students encounter a program which involves considerable free time, very few examinations, no grading of students who are doing satisfactory work, and constant encouragement to do independent research on scientific projects. These are all designed to help the student accept responsibility for his own education.

Beginning two weeks after matriculation, each student is assigned to a patient of his own, selected because she is among the normal pregnant women in the University Hospital's Ante Partum Clinic. He follows his patient closely, encourages her to call him on any health problem, and gets to know the rest of the family through visits to the home. After the baby is born, well-baby care is provided in a special Family Clinic, where the student assumes increasing responsibility as he goes through four years of medical school. The student, of course, has close contact with obstetricians in charge of the mother's care, and with pediatricians in the Family Clinic. In addition, each group of eight students has a clinical preceptor who meets with them two hours each week for discussion of problems arising in the families, or in the students' relations with them. They also discuss the material presented in a one-hour-a-week series of Clinical Science lectures on the patient–physician relationship, the family as a health unit, the factors influencing physical and emotional growth of infants, and community health organization. This is, I emphasize again, a program running through the first year of medical school.

In a further effort at continuity, we have instituted a new device in Phase 3, which begins in the middle of the junior year. This is officially known as the Continuity Program, and again involves each student in personal, continuing relationships with patients, preceptor, and student group. Each student has a specified half-day, such as Monday afternoon, for the Continuity Program throughout the sixteen months of Phase 3. This takes precedence administratively over all other assignments. On this half-day, he meets with his preceptor, usually in the "Continuity Clinic," a special unit of the Out-Patient Department, where facilities and assistance are provided for the care of selected patients. These patients come from a variety of sources, but in most cases the student is serving as the general physician, under the guidance of his preceptor, and backed up by all the resources of the teaching hospital. Most important, however, is the fact that in this section of

the OPD the case load is controlled by the preceptor, so that the educational opportunity for the student will not be ruined by excessive service obligations.

In all of these efforts to help students develop professional attitudes, we have been impressed by the fact that when students are treated in a mature manner they have great capacity to respond in a mature, responsible way.

TEAMWORK IN EDUCATION

The evolution of our new curriculum involved a great deal of cooperation among our medical school staff, from all departments. Although this was painful at times, we learned the value which can come from effective joint action. When we came to the development of our Clinical Science program, it was natural that we ask social workers and nurses to serve on the planning committees. They were generous with their help.

In the Family Study, the pregnant patients are selected and interviewed by a medical social worker, with the medical guidance of the obstetrician. Each student discusses the social worker's summary with her before being introduced to his patient. The social worker remains as a member of the Family Clinic Staff and is available to the student and the preceptor for consultation about social problems in the family.

When the new-born baby of the family goes home from the hospital, the first-year student is expected to make contact directly with the Visiting Nurse Association so that he can arrange to be at the home when the nurse makes her initial visit. We have had superb cooperation from the Visiting Nurse Association, and this seemingly difficult scheduling operation has worked out very well. Part of the reason, of course, is that observing the Visiting Nurse work with the baby and giving instructions to the mother has been accepted by the medical students as a valuable learning experience for them. In four years I have never heard a student speak with anything less than the highest respect for the competence and attitude of the Visiting Nurse.

One other aspect of our approach to teamwork is a part of the Continuity Program. With the assistance of a grant from the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, we have a rehabilitation teaching project designed to give our medical students some constructive experience with physically handicapped patients. The grant provides support for a teaching team consisting of a physician, public health nurse, medical social worker, physical therapist, and vocational counselor. This group assists the student in making an evaluation of the patient's problem, defining goals, and mobilizing community resources which will help the patient adapt successfully to the disability.

However, when this program was conceived it was clear that its scope was far beyond that of the medical school. For that reason, an effort was made to set it up as a University project. It is interesting that in a university there is really no established mechanism for joint educational efforts by the several professional school faculties. Fortunately, our University President became interested in this project, and appointed himself chairman of a University Committee on Rehabilitation Teaching. This group, with representation from medicine, nursing, social work, physical education, and vocational guidance, is officially responsible for the teaching project financed by the Polio Foundation.

When the funds became available for this program, the School of Nursing Faculty nominated the public health nurse

for the teaching team. She is an assistant professor of nursing, an associate in the School of Medicine, and spends approximately one-quarter of her time in work for the nursing school. A similar arrangement was made with the School of Applied Social Sciences, whose Faculty nominated the medical social worker.

Partly as a result of the efforts of these members of our team, working with their respective faculties, we now have a small pilot program in interprofessional education. Some students in public health nursing and in medical social work are being assigned to the Continuity Clinic in a manner which permits them to maintain long-term personal relationships with patients who are receiving general medical care from medical students, under guidance of the preceptors and with the assistance of the rehabilitation teaching team.

Although this interprofessional teaching effort is in its earliest infancy, we are enthusiastic about its possibilities. Students have a way of accepting more or less automatically those things they experience as part of the routine of their basic professional education. If our medical students work closely with students of other health professions in an atmosphere where each other's professional skills are recognized and used, we believe they should have a good start toward cooperation with other professional groups in their later careers. And the complexities of this type of educational program are such that a good deal of careful experimentation is necessary to be sure that technical and administrative breakdowns do not cloud its potential value.

IN CONCLUSION

Referring to the title of this discussion, "Education for Professional Roles in Comprehensive Health Service," I should like to summarize it in three fragments.

Education may be defined as a process which has a lasting effect on the attitudes, objectives, and scale of values of the student. It goes on as part of his life experience. It is not the same as accumulation of knowledge and skills, which may better be classified as training. Our professional schools have the obligation to examine their programs, and to appraise the two-, three-, or four-year life experience, not just in terms of knowledge and skill, or semester hours of academic credit, but in terms of its total impact on the student as a person—on his attitudes, objectives, and scale of values.

Professional roles are distinguished by particular knowledge and skills, but also by some kind of dedication to the interest of the client or patient. Each of the separate health professions has its own areas of knowledge and skill. In many of the professions there are also numerous subprofessions or specialties, some of which are quite broad, others very narrow; some in the areas of practice, others in research, teaching, and administration. But all professional workers in the health fields, in addition to their separate professional knowledge and skills and their narrower specialized knowledge and skills, have some basic professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes which they share with all other professional workers in the health fields. These basic attributes of the professional worker include ability to enter into constructive interpersonal relations with patients, to procure significant information about health problems, and to recognize the limits of their own knowledge and skills. In defining the various roles in the health field we must be flexible, recognizing that conditions in each community, especially the availability of colleagues from other professions

and specialties, will determine how much a professional worker will exercise the basic skills of the health professions, or emphasize the use of specialized knowledge and skills of his own separate profession or subgroup.

Comprehensive health service, which is a modern concept, embraces almost all aspects of a person's life, since we recognize today that illness may result from maladjustment of any sort. No matter how one defines medicine, comprehensive health service is *not* synonymous with medical care in the hospital, office, and home. Medicine is *one aspect* of comprehensive health service. We should make persistent efforts to define medicine in more precise terms, so that opportunities for the development of the responsibilities of other health professions will not be unduly limited by legal barriers to the "practice of medicine." Here we need clear concentration on the ultimate interest of the patient.

Since there is no doubt that specialized professional education and practice are firmly established, *today* the most urgent problem which must be solved, if comprehensive health service is to be made available to patients who need it, is to develop a "generalist" in health service who, in the broad area of health service, will have the kind of knowledge, skills, and wisdom we like to attribute in medicine to the best of the "family doctors." This would certainly be the most economical and most personal way of integrating the knowledge and skills of specialists from all health professions into an intelligible program of service to the individual patient. If no such paragon can be produced, then we must have some kind of personal health adviser who will be accepted by the individual patient as his first line of communication about health problems; who will have ready access to a small group of generalists from other professions; who, in turn, will be backed by more highly specialized colleagues.

Unfortunately, the leadership for the development of such generally skilled health professionals must come from the professional schools, if it is to be sound. But the schools are not well equipped to provide this leadership, in view of traditional university compartmentalization and the increasingly narrow specialization of most teachers on the faculties of the separate professional schools. We are not leading successfully if we lead our students deeper and deeper into our separate holes, most of which were started long before we had any concept of comprehensive health service. As educators, then, we have the obligation to study the means by which comprehensive health service can be delivered to the individual patient. If generalists in the separate health professions (or some kinds of multiprofessional generalists) are needed, we must define these roles and offer challenging educational opportunities for students who may be attracted to them.

Finally, if we are to be successful in "education for professional roles in comprehensive health service," in the sense that I have used the terms in this discussion, I believe we must reconsider the place of the modern hospital in professional education. The acute general hospital is one of the monumental accomplishments of our civilization. In the past fifty years its performance has created an amazing revolution in public attitudes, from the place where few respectable people would go to a hospital, to the place where it is almost impossible to keep our leading citizens out of them.

In this period the general hospital has become pre-eminent in specialized medical practice, and in the training of gradu-

ate physicians in medical specialities. It makes some outstanding contributions to the knowledge and skills of medical students, and I assume the same is true of nursing students and others. However, I believe the acute general hospital, as it is presently operated, is not well suited for the basic professional education of students of the health professions, because of its fast tempo, our inability to give real responsibility to students there, and the lack of continuity of student–patient relationships. The emphasis in the hospital is on matters which are strictly medical practice. The needs of the patients and the legal requirements make the order book the symbol of authority. This is certainly not the setting in which to teach the concept of interprofessional cooperation in comprehensive health service. The acute general hospital is a most valuable educational institution, but it does not provide the answer to some of our most pressing educational problems.

Whether we look at nursing education during the professional life of Miss Goodrich; or medical education since the Flexner Report of 1910, or the changing role of the general hospital in the past half century, one fact is outstanding. Educational programs have changed, and service programs have changed, because of the accumulation of new knowledge and skills, and because of constant, insistent effort to apply these in direct service to patients. We must accept change not as a threat but as a challenge.

The vital question for the next fifty years is whether our universities and professional schools, with proper safeguards for their scholarly functions, can define the professional roles that are essential to the best in comprehensive health service, and then attract, train, counsel, and truly educate the dedicated people who should fill these roles.

The Need for Reappraisal of Fiscal Policies for Higher Education*

T. L. HUNGATE

CONTROLLER, AND PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE

THE greatest resources of a nation are its people—their characters and their abilities. These resources are maximized only when each individual is afforded opportunity to develop his talents through education.

In the nineteenth century our nation established the common school—universal, free, and publicly financed. And in the first half of this century, this system of public education was extended through the high school. Like the elementary school, the secondary school has become universal, free, and publicly financed. Each state has tended to support the system according to its means. The inequalities that exist today in educational opportunities at this level among the states are attributable in large measure to their varying fiscal capacities. And there is widespread conviction that such inequalities can be nullified only by federal aid to the states.

Now we are engaged in a great national debate over the appropriate social policies for higher education. The social needs for college-trained men and women are mounting. Furthermore, enrollments are expected to rise to perhaps 4 million or more youth by 1965, an increase of about 50 per cent above the 2.7 million reported for 1955-56. Of equal concern with the expansion in numbers of students and staff, with program developments, and with provision for physical facilities is concern that the talents of the gifted youth be identified and developed, and not lost to him or to society through either lack of educational opportunities or their full utilization.

This debate will affect future plans. It will be reflected in the actions of state officers and commissions, state legislatures, philanthropists, and the federal government. Exercising leadership in the identification of issues requiring our consideration is the recently appointed President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School. It will be readily agreed that appropriate fiscal policies for higher education are essential to the national welfare, but agreement on such policies will be difficult. It is the purpose in this paper to discuss practices for finance, to indicate issues, and to suggest some appropriate actions.

At the outset we must recognize four

* An All-College Lecture delivered at Teachers College, Columbia, July 12, 1956.

Professor Hungate is a member of the National Committee on Methods of Determining Costs of Collegiate Schools of Nursing. He is author of *Finance in Educational Management of American Colleges and Universities* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia, 1954).

marked differences between higher education and elementary and secondary education: first, student cost of living while at college, traditionally borne by students and their parents, is the alternative to gainful employment; second, the institutional cost of college training is considerably higher than the cost of lower levels of training; third, attendance at college is optional, while for elementary and secondary school it is (generally) compulsory; and fourth, unlike the free public elementary and secondary school, higher education imposes fees—and often high fees—upon its students.

The aggregate of expenditures for higher education in the United States is much higher than is generally realized. In 1951-52, institutional expenditures for resident instruction of youth, for extension services, and for organized research and services aggregated $1.9 billion, of which about $1.0 billion was expended in institutions publicly controlled, and about $.9 billion in institutions privately controlled. In addition, $.4 billion was spent on plant extensions, and perhaps $1.7 to $2.0 billion more on the cost of living of students. Thus the aggregate cost of higher education in 1951-52 is estimated at about $4.0 billion, and it is rising rapidly.

DIVERSITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

What we seek to inquire into are the financial practices and policies of a highly complicated network of institutions of higher education. There are more than 1800 of these institutions. They differ in size, type, program, control, and sources and levels of support. Over half of all students are enrolled in institutions publicly (usually state) controlled; about 30 per cent are in private independently controlled institutions; and about 20 per cent are in church controlled institutions. But the distribution differs markedly from state to state. Over two-thirds of the students are found in institutions enrolling more than 1000 students.

Institutional types include universities, liberal arts colleges, teachers colleges, technological schools, and community and junior colleges, and within each institution the differentiation of program is probably unique. The sources of support are ever in varying relationships. Some institutions under public control charge no fees; in most the fees are modest; and in some they cover over half the current cost. There are some institutions under private control in which fees cover most of the current cost; in most they cover over half; and in some the fees are low. Philanthropy is widespread among private institutions, but the greater portion of philanthropy tends to be concentrated in a small number of great institutions, probably not over forty—including Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Chicago, Columbia, Stanford, to name a few. Some public institutions receive substantial philanthropic contributions. Public support is predominantly state support. Federal support (other than GI entitlements) is primarily for research. Finally, the levels of support differ among institutions, a fact which may be observed in the levels of salaries of teachers.

MEASURING EXPENDITURES AND SUPPORT

It is apparent that for our purpose a method of observation must be devised which will measure the broad aspects of practice, yet avoid the detailed differentiation among individual institutions. The fiscal practices in higher education which I shall describe are derived from a study I have recently completed. In this study, state-wide averages of both levels and

sources of institutional support (1951-52) were used. Such measures were deemed especially appropriate because the conduct of higher education is a function of the states, and average state-wide practices will have bearing on state plans and policies.

Our examination will be limited to the current support of the higher education of youth. This limitation is in fact twofold. In the first place, the definition of current educational cost will exclude the cost of student aid, the cost of auxiliary activities (dormitories, dining halls, bookstores, and so forth), and the cost of physical plant extensions. In the second place, the focus on the current support of the education of youth causes to be excluded the cost of two important institutional functions that are themselves of growing significance in the services performed by higher educational institutions. I refer to: (1) the cost of organized research; and (2) the cost of the education of adults through such activities as extension services, continuing education, and community development. The net expenditure for the higher education of youth is estimated at $1.3 billion. Thus our measures are restricted to state-wide averages of the levels and sources of current support of the education of youth. Since we may assume that all student fees (including GI entitlements) are applied to finance this cost, the difference will be the non-fee or social support, which will consist primarily of state and local government funds in publicly controlled institutions and primarily of gifts and endowment incomes in private institutions.

We shall seek to learn what efforts are put forth by the citizens of a state for support of higher education of their youth. Finding the answer is complicated by the widespread practice of student migration, a practice in itself educational and one to be encouraged so long as it represents the free choice of the student. On the average, one-fifth of the students resident in one state study in another; the range is from 7.2 per cent for residents of California to 55.8 per cent for residents of New Jersey. Public institutions charge higher fees for non-resident students, but such fees are usually substantially below the cost. While students in private institutions pay the required fees, the excess of cost is for the most part borne by philanthropy—whether gifts or income from invested funds. Philanthropic support (generally) rests on the current productivity of enterprise and is available to students of all states who satisfy admissions requirements and can pay the fees.

Thus, the effort made by the citizens of a state for the youth resident of a state is assumed to be made up of: (1) fees paid by individual citizens (including GI entitlements) in both public and private institutions, both in-state and out-of-state; (2) social (non-fee) support, primarily public funds in in-state public institutions for both resident and non-resident enrollees; and (3) social (non-fee) support, primarily philanthropy in private institutions wherever applied to the benefit of state residents. It would assist us in gaining perspective if the totals were expressed per capita of the college-age population—eighteen to twenty-one years—of each state. Such state-wide averages afford measures that permit comparison among the states.

EXPENDITURES BY STATES

Analysis of data for the year 1951-52 reveals that the per-capita levels of current support of the education of youth range from $68 to $356. The level was less than $100 in nine states; it was more than $220 in eight states.

It is a basic characteristic of present practice that the flow of money for current support of higher education of youth is highly unequal among the states, and if we assume that (in general) the expenditures made are reasonably reflected in the quantity and quality of education, we must expect to find great inequality of higher educational opportunity among the states. There is ample evidence that such is the fact. The ratio of student enrollment of residents of each state, expressed as full-time student equivalents, ranged from 10 to above 40 for each 100 of the youth population—ages eighteen to twenty-one. In fourteen states it was under 15; in five states it was above 30. Moreover, the average expenditure per full-time student varies markedly, and it is reasonable to expect to find a relationship between standards and costs. The national average of current expenditure per full-time student was about $750, but in two states it was below $600 and in three states it was above $900.

We may expect such variation to be accounted for by the differences in abilities of the states to support higher education. Perhaps the best single measure of such ability is the incomes paid to individuals in a state, per capita of the total population for the state. The per-capita incomes paid to individuals in 1952 ranged from $818 for Mississippi to $2,260 for Delaware. In five states it was less than $1,100; in five states it was above $2,000.

There was found to be a significant statistical relationship between per-capita support for the higher education of youth and the means of the states measured by per-capita incomes. The per-capita level of support rises as per-capita incomes rise, and the average effort in relation to means can be computed. This affords one standard by which an individual state may assess its position: namely, the comparison of its per-capita current support of the higher education of youth in relation to its means with the average provisions of all the states in relation to their means. This analysis shows the states making greater effort in relation to means to be Florida, Oregon, California, Washington, Colorado, and Utah; those making less effort to be Kentucky, South Carolina, West Virginia, Georgia, Pennsylvania, Nebraska, Maine, and Delaware.

SOURCES OF SUPPORT

Turning now to the sources of support, there is found to be a significant correlation between fees (including GI entitlements) paid by the citizens of a state per capita of state population ages eighteen to twenty-one and state per-capita incomes, but there is no significant correlation between ability, on the one hand, and measures of effort provided through either philanthropy or public funds, on the other.

Yet we know that this lack of significant relationship between measures of social support of higher education and financial ability is not brought about by indifference of the ordinary citizen. Rather, we can account for it by the weight of tradition, for higher education since early times has been financed largely by the student and his family—the cost of instruction and the cost of living as well.

An examination of public support of elementary and secondary education may suggest the direction of development for higher education.

There is high correlation between *public* support of elementary and secondary education per capita of the population ages five to seventeen, and state per-capita incomes.

The achieved levels of support represent the money values placed by the peo-

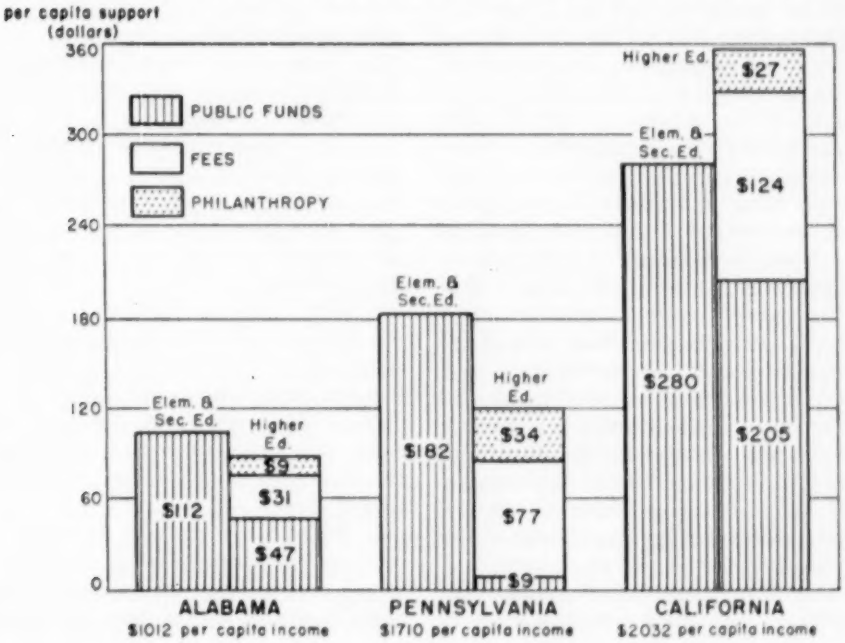
ple of each state on public elementary and secondary education in light of the means they possessed. Such support averaged $130 per capita of the population ages five to seventeen in twelve states of low fiscal capacity; it averaged $213 in twelve states of high fiscal capacity. Current per-capita costs for higher education tend, at this stage of its development, to equal or exceed the current per-capita costs of elementary and secondary education, and will doubtless rise substantially above them as enrollments rise. But it is important to note that, on the average, at the present time less than half the current cost is borne by *public* funds. Indeed, in seven states public funds account for less than 30 per cent of the current cost, and in six states amount to less than $30 per capita of youth ages eighteen to twenty-one. Three of these states are among the fourteen enjoying the highest per-capita incomes in the nation.

A clearer picture may be given by briefly examining the characteristics of a few individual states. The choice of states is not particularly significant. Alabama has a low per-capita income ($1,012), Pennsylvania ranks thirty-fifth on the scale, California forty-fourth. Each of these states has a large college-age population. Comparative data for these states are presented in the following chart.

Here are shown graphically for three

FIGURE 1. PER-CAPITA CURRENT EDUCATIONAL SUPPORT FOR SELECTED STATES, 1951-52

(Figures for elementary and secondary education are public school support per capita of population ages five to seventeen. Figures for current institutional support of higher education of youth are per capita of population ages eighteen to twenty-one.)



states the wide differences in the per-capita support of education. For elementary and secondary education, public support is closely related to the fiscal capacities of the states. For higher education, this relationship has yet to be established. Note how per-capita provision for public current support of higher education of youth varies from $47 in Alabama to $9 in Pennsylvania to $205 in California, and consider the significance of this both in terms of equality of educational opportunity and in terms of the national welfare.

Yet in eight states—all western except Florida (Florida, Utah, Arizona, Colorado, Oregon, Washington, California, Nevada)—the support of higher education rests significantly on public funds, ranging from $107 to $205 per capita of youth ages eighteen to twenty-one, and bearing a marked relation to per-capita incomes.

The conclusion appears inescapable that the states are not yet generally applying public support of higher education in relation to their means. That so high a level of support is attained in this country is owing to individual support through fees, aided by philanthropy—in a few states to a marked degree. And it is this pattern of finance that often loses to society the talents of gifted youth whose parents are of limited means; that often causes parents to assume burdens they can ill afford to bear. It is of interest to note that in twelve states providing the lowest levels of per-capita support of higher education in relation to means, fees account for an average 48 per cent of the cost; in the twelve states providing the highest level of support, fees account for but 38 per cent of the cost.

Brief mention should be made of philanthropy. Its major importance lies in the few great institutions that receive most of it. *Philanthropic* support of the higher education of youth per capita of the population ages eighteen to twenty-one of each state in 1951-52 ranged from $5 to $74. In nine states it was less than $10; in only seven was it above $30. The latter include the states of the eastern seaboard that have traditionally placed primary reliance upon it, together with high fees, to finance higher education for their children: New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island and Connecticut, to which must be added Illinois. In these seven states the average per-capita *public* support for higher education is but $38.27. It is my opinion that philanthropy will continue to be an important source of support, that its dollar volume will increase, but that as a percentage of total support it will markedly decline.

These observations of practice permit discussion of issues that now face us. We have observed these facts:

1. There is great inequality among the states in the support of higher education for youth.

2. The major burden of institutional support often falls heavily on the student and his family. In addition, it must be remembered that the full responsibility for student cost of living (generally) falls on them.

3. Public support from funds derived from tax sources (generally) bears no significant relation to ability of the states to support higher education (although it does to elementary or secondary education), but there are a few states now demonstrating a pattern of substantial public support.

4. Philanthropy may be expected to play an increasing role in pioneer educational undertakings, but as a sustaining force in the support of the education of

youth it may be expected to decline in proportion to the rising cost.

SOME ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION

The issues facing the American people with respect to the provision of the right amounts and kinds of higher education for American youth are urgently in need of resolution. Here are seven of them. The comments following each question reflect my personal opinion, but all these questions need widespread debate, the sharing of opinions and judgments.

Question 1

Is higher education a form of personal capital, social capital, or both? If both, how shall student interest be weighed? Parent interest? Society's interest?

Comment. Education as personal capital is that part of education that contributes to making people industrially efficient. Education as personal wealth is the total contribution of education to life, including training for self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility.

Education as social wealth or social capital is the aggregate of the education of the individuals in a society when viewed as personal wealth, account being taken of the fact that the potential of education possessed by a group is greater than the sum of that possessed by its individual members.

Now the total higher education process is that of capital formation—the capital outlay for plant, the cost of institutional operations, and the student abstinence from earnings during the period of study, which is commonly equated to student cost of living.

This capital must be formed through individuals, and it is (generally) to their advantage both in earning a living and in enriching their lives. Thus, to the individual, it is both personal capital and personal wealth. But it is social capital to all the citizens. They require that government and the professions be ably manned; that industry and agriculture advance on the basis of new knowledge. As interdependence grows, the reliance on social capital increases. Thus, the interest of society in the education of youth is mounting, and I judge that it is at least equal to and doubtless substantially transcends that of the individual student.

Yet it is the parents who bear a big share of the cost of higher education, and for increasing periods of training. This they do because of family ties—often at great sacrifice. But they receive little or no money return from their investment.

It is my opinion that the principals of primary interest are the student and the public at large. And if this opinion is confirmed, the excessive burden on the parents should be reduced and a greater share assumed by society.

Question 2

What is the appropriate scope for financial support for the higher education of youth? Is it limited to the financing of institutions, or does it appropriately include the cost of living of students?

Comment. It is a requisite of this type of capital formation that the opportunity be available, and that the student abstain from gainful employment in order to avail himself of the opportunity. It is my opinion that plans for institutional programs without collateral plans for setting aside the barriers to student attendance will result in great waste of both material and human resources. The social policy for higher education should be concerned with both institutional costs and student living costs.

Question 3

What is the guiding principle for determining just how much higher education should be provided for youth?

Comment. It must not be overlooked that increase in higher education will operate to withhold more youth from the labor forces. The growth of our technology would seem to permit this. Higher education as social capital should be carried on to the point where the benefits of training of a boy or girl of lesser rank of ability will make it just worth the cost. There have been various estimates. The President's Commission, in 1948, thought that 49 per cent of the college-age youth had the ability to complete two years of college and that 32 per cent of this age group might well continue through 4 years.

While from the social view public support may well be afforded more fully to those with the greatest promise of success in college—say the top 25 per cent in ability—and perhaps to a lesser degree to those of lesser ability but with rating above a defined standard, the road should always be kept open to those who wish to proceed at their own risk.

Question 4

How should the burden of cost be borne? Institutional cost? Student living costs?

Comment. I suggest that student fees be maintained at a moderate level, say at one-third—and preferably one-fourth—of the current institutional cost, in order to lighten the burden on parents. And study may show this suggested level to be too high for the best interests of society. Consideration might well be given to a like limitation of the burden of fees in private independently controlled institutions by the use of state funds for student aid.

To thus employ the resources of private institutions without entering into control may encourage philanthropy, and may afford substantial savings to the state both in the provision of physical facilities and in operations. I do not think that public funds should be provided to church controlled schools or to the students who attend them.

While students and parents may continue to finance student living costs, neither fees nor cost of living should bar a student who has met defined state standards and has been admitted to an accredited college. State aid should supplement family means as needed for this purpose.

It is considered likely that each beneficiary of a college education so lifts the national income that the increased taxes he pays during his lifetime will more than repay to society the initial capital it has invested in him.

Question 5

What degree of equality of educational opportunity should be sought? Will equalization require federal aid? Should this aid be extended to institutional programs? To provision for student living costs?

Comment. It is the first duty of the states to increase their efforts to support institutions of higher education consistent with the means they possess. This calls for immediate and vigorous state plans for increased support. Full equality in relation to qualified persons that meet a defined national standard should prevail throughout the nation. This will require federal aid to the states, both for institutional support and for student living costs that may be provided in whole or in part to students of families of limited means.

Question 6

How shall responsibilities be assigned? What to institutions? What to states? What to the federal government? And what principles should guide their relationships?

Comment. In my opinion, it is the responsibility of the states within their means to provide opportunities for higher education of youth; to safeguard the freedoms of private institutions; to weld a state system of public institutions through wise planning and allocation of functions; to encourage planning between public and private institutions to avoid needless duplication of facilities; to relate the amount and kind—and hence the cost—to available means; to secure economy and good fiscal management; and to achieve coordination as fully as possible among institutions and community resources.

In my opinion, the major responsibility of the federal government should be to assist the states to achieve a national standard of equality of educational opportunity. Such federal aid should be provided for both institutional operations and student living costs as needed for families of limited means. The federal government may, in the national interest, seek to strengthen instruction in specific areas; and it may provide loans or grants for institutional physical facilities. When services are needed by a branch of the federal government, direct contacts may be made with institutions, but (in general) its relationships should be with designated state agencies, and not directly with institutions. Federal aid should be provided on the basis of objective formulae, controls being limited to verification of use through audit.

Question 7

What machinery is best devised for the people of a state in order to assure to them continuing study, appraisal, and decision on the social and fiscal policies for the higher education of youth?

Comment. The job of guiding the continuing flow of billions of dollars into the social capital of higher education is too big to entrust to occasional temporary committees or commissions. We do not seek solution of temporary emergencies, but rather, social policies designed and adapted to serve both present and long-range national development. A high degree of continuity must be assured. And a permanent commission should doubtless be freed of the responsibility of administration. Its job is to assess and reassess what is being done and what should be done; to evaluate; to propose; to interpret. Possibly in each state this should be the Governor's Commission on Higher Education. It should be composed of distinguished citizens. It should render continuing service with adequate full-time and part-time staff to achieve its purposes. Possibly at the national level there should be a permanent President's Commission. Studies of state and federal fiscal practices and policies in higher education *should be continuous.*

These are the issues as I view them. The opinions I have expressed are to be mingled with the opinions of countless others. We must have widespread debate of these issues. This is our paramount duty. It is vital to the best development of this nation that these issues be resolved. The need for attention to the development of our youth outranks the need for attention to butter and guns.

What can we individuals do? Each of us, as a member of a community, may have opportunity this fall to participate in conferences to be called by the President's Committee on Education Beyond

the High School. We can seek to be informed; we can take a fresh look at how higher education is supported; and we can participate in the channels of communication that are open to us. We want the best plans in the world for the higher education of American youth, but to be effective they must rest on the best fiscal plans in the world for achieving them.

New Directions in Intercollegiate Athletics*

HARRY A. SCOTT

PROFESSOR OF HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE

In seeking to understand intercollegiate athletics, it is necessary to consider one of the essential characteristics of American institutions of higher learning. Colleges and universities are chartered by the several states primarily to provide for the education of young people and to promote the general welfare of society. It seems apparent, then, that everything that takes place in an institution of higher learning must in some way —through instruction, research, or services—contribute to the educational welfare of the students and of society. It is because colleges and universities promote the general welfare that they, along with religious institutions and charitable organizations, are exempt from public taxation. Colleges are not (nor were they ever intended to be) commercial institutions. Obviously, then, athletics must exist in institutions of higher learning in order to contribute to the goals of education and to the improvement of the social order. If the program cannot be justified as an integral phase of the educational curriculum, then it is exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to explain why it belongs in the college at all.

* Professor Scott was formerly Instructor at Columbia College, and Head of the Department of Physical Education at the University of Oregon, Rice Institute, and Brooklyn College.

FALLACIOUS NOTIONS

Certainly athletics cannot be justified merely because it provides amusement to the public. Nor can it be defended on the grounds that money derived from athletic contests is essential to the financial structure of the college. In this connection it is true that a few of the more powerful, favorably located colleges and universities, athletically speaking, earn large sums of money through gate receipts, guarantees, sales of television and radio broadcasting rights, participation in bowl games, and similar lucrative commercial enterprises. However, most institutions of higher learning that attempt to bolster their finances through athletics learn by bitter experience that it is easier to force the proverbial camel through the eye of the needle than it is to make money from athletics. Where financial profits from athletics are concerned, the question must also be resolved as to the extent an educational institution, exempt from public taxation, is justified in expecting to profit financially through the toil of non-paid amateurs, who are supposedly participating in the game because they love it.

Moreover, athletics cannot be justified for its propaganda values to the college, since the proof of a worth-while institution of higher learning lies not in the championship quality of its athletic teams but in the contributions it makes to the

world of scholarship and research, and in the qualitative achievements of its faculty members and students. Obviously, then, if athletics cannot be defended because of its entertainment, money-making, or propaganda values, it must be justified on the basis of its contributions to the educational goals of the college.

A PHASE OF GENERAL EDUCATION

Fortunately, as a component of the program of physical education, athletics, if properly conceived, organized, and taught, can be justified as an integral phase of the general education of *all* students. General education may be defined as "that part of the educational program which seeks to develop in the student the common understandings, skills, and attitudes needed to function effectively as a person, as a member of a family, and as a citizen in a democratic society."[1] By and large it is agreed that general education seeks to develop skills, understanding, knowledge, attitudes, and appreciations which will help the individual live more effectively in a complex society such as ours. To accomplish this, the college is obligated to provide experiences which will aid the student in developing a deep and abiding concern for others, a high plane of moral–ethical values, and the means to live effectively and happily with his fellow men.

General education seeks to widen the student's perspective in terms of past and present, affording him an understanding of his role in the world at large. This background for the individual is not an end in itself; it is a means for a fuller life and for a stronger and freer democracy. In these trying days of international tensions, citizens are needed who are responsible, mature, resourceful, capable of making sound decisions on critical issues, and, if necessary, bearing arms in defense of these decisions. Thus, it may be seen that the goals of general education demand more than the mere mastery of a body of knowledge; they must be understood and interpreted in terms of improved behavior.

If athletics is to be made worthy of a place in the educational curriculum, then those responsible for the program must delineate clearly and concisely the possible outcomes of participation in competitive sports and the manner in which the activities of the program can best be organized and conducted to provide maximal education experiences for college youth. These programs must in fact, as well as in theory, contribute to the general education of *all* students. This means that athletics, working cooperatively with the traditional academic disciplines, will so conduct its program as to enrich the lives of students by helping them to engage in experiences designed to produce the maximum development of their total personalities; improve their abilities to live harmoniously and cooperatively with others; attain competences leading to economic efficiency and independence; and enjoy the privileges and discharge the obligations of enlightened democratic citizenship.

FACULTY CONTROL

One of the troubles with athletics is that personnel in this area of education have never really been expected to solve the problems in the field. From the very beginning, in 1852, those involved in athletics as players or teachers were considered interlopers in the academic domain. To control this encroachment, special faculty committees were established

[1] Raymond A. Snyder and Harry A. Scott, *Professional Preparation in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954), p. 52.

to prevent the athletic tail from wagging the educational dog. Because of this unhappy assignment, perhaps, academicians tended to exhibit a superiority over, and a healthy distrust of, anyone connected with intercollegiate athletics. As the inevitable problems arose in athletics they were, therefore, resolved *for* not *by* personnel responsible for the program of competitive sports. When, in the course of events, faculty members were forced to control athletics through committee action, much of their attention was directed toward the formulation of prohibitions designed to *curb* the program and everyone who was concerned with it. The thou-shalt-not philosophy of control, instituted in the early days of athletics, is very much in evidence today. The philosophy still seems to be "when in doubt, add a prohibition."

OUTSIDE CONTROL

The early development of such athletic conferences as the Pacific Coast Conference, the Western Conference (Big Ten), and the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), was merely an extension beyond the campus of the principle of faculty control. At present it must be clear even to the most casual observers that faculty committees on athletics, athletic conferences of faculty representatives, the faculty-dominated NCAA, and the faculty-operated regional and voluntary accrediting associations have not been eminently successful in curbing malpractices in the program of intercollegiate athletics. Had they been successful we would not at this very moment be plagued with the same unresolved problems that have faced athletics from its beginning, more than a hundred years ago. Conversely, while it is true that these organizations have been unsuccessful in solving many of the problems of athletics, it must not be assumed that they failed to add anything of value to the program. On the contrary, these groups stepped into the breach when little was known about intercollegiate sports and brought some semblance of order out of chaos. The NCAA particularly, through its rules-making functions and in many other ways, has fostered and strengthened understanding and gained the acceptance of athletics in the colleges and universities throughout the United States.

IF YOU CAN'T LICK 'EM, JOIN 'EM

Not only has control by faculty members failed to curb traditional abuses in athletics, it sometimes appears that the academicians have joined forces with the athletic barbarians to create new abuses. If current practice is a criterion, it seems that in some institutions of higher learning there exists a giant conspiracy to bypass established rules and disregard principles of ethical conduct in order to achieve status in athletics. Otherwise it is difficult to explain why students of low academic qualifications are admitted to the college; or how athletes acquire lucrative "scholarships" which have little or nothing to do with scholarly performance; or why special dormitory and dining facilities not available to other students are open to the chosen few in athletics; or why special privileges regarding class attendance are accorded athletes but not other students; and how it is that special curricula are tailor-made for athletes, especially designed to keep them eligible. It is difficult to understand how these things happen when academic faculty members and administrative officers representing a cross section of the entire college are directly responsible for policy and practice in many of the areas involved.

CRUCIAL ISSUES

Since the very beginning of intercollegiate athletics, faculty committees, conferences, and other groups have developed regulations covering the minutiae and superficialities of the program of competitive sports. Today, policy-making and policy-regulating bodies continue in the traditional pattern. In their eagerness to curb current abuses of one kind or another, these well-meaning groups consistently fail to resolve basic issues underlying intercollegiate athletics. The report of the College Presidents Committee of the American Council on Education was an attempt in this direction, but it was pretty generally ignored by athletic governing bodies.[2]

These crucial issues in intercollegiate athletics do not lie alone in such matters as the recruitment and subsidization of athletes, or in the scholastic averages to be maintained by the participants, or even in the problem of whether or not to permit spring football practice. Although it is highly important to draw a sharp line between what is amateur and what is professional in athletics, the crucial issues do not center alone on attempts to enforce to the letter our outmoded amateur code, which was handed down to us with few alterations from ancient Greece, by way of eighteenth and nineteenth century England. These troublesome and sometimes reprehensible practices represent only the symptoms of more important and deep-seated malignancies which lie elsewhere in the field. Once these malignancies are discovered and removed, perhaps the annoying symptoms will wither and die.

If the problems mentioned above are not the most important in the field of athletics, then what are the basic issues? Among them are the following:

1. Should athletics contribute to the general education of all college students, or should its primary function be to entertain and amuse the publics by using only a few highly selected, narrow specialists in the field of sports?

2. Should athletics be an integral phase of the educational curriculum, financed out of appropriated funds and controlled by the institution in exactly the same manner as chemistry or biology; or should it be conducted as an *extra*curricular activity that uses for its selfish purposes the good name of the college, its facilities, and a few highly selected students, but operates more or less independently outside the structure of the college under a different philosophy and set of goals, and different policies relating to finances, personnel, and other aspects of the program?

3. Should the philosophy, policies, and practices adhered to in other areas of the college govern all action in the program of intercollegiate athletics; or should the principles and practices of business and commerce guide the action?

REFORM: A PROFESSIONAL PROBLEM

If the crucial issues of athletics have not been resolved by faculty committees on athletics, athletic conferences, the NCAA, the regional and voluntary accrediting agencies, or by others, then who can be relied on to bring about this long overdue and much-needed reform? The answer is that reform in intercollegiate athletics is as surely a *professional* problem as are departmental problems in chemistry, biology, engineering, or mathematics, and must rest squarely on the shoulders of professional personnel

[2] *Special Committee on Athletic Policy of the American Council on Education* (Washington, American Council on Education), 1952.

in these fields. The colleges must rely for reform upon the teachers of competitive sports (many people call them coaches, but they are teachers) and those in the department of physical education who administer and supervise the program of intercollegiate athletics. Indeed, because of an amazing lack of foresight in the past, and the pursuit of goals that are primarily uneducational, to say the least, these persons must now accept major responsibility for the sorry state of present-day intercollegiate athletics. These are the persons who have intimate knowledge of the malpractices in the field. These are the ones who initiate and nourish the abuses. For these reasons they should be held responsible for bringing them to an end. This is the way it is done in other departments of the college and there is no valid reason why it should not be done in athletics.

This grass-roots approach to the solution of problems in athletics involves some of the basic issues relating to human conduct. One of these issues involves the delineation of responsibilities. The time has come in American education when the program of intercollegiate athletics should be accorded full curricular status. Those in charge should have responsibility for making the program conform to the educational goals of the college and should be held strictly accountable for their actions. The traditional distrust by academicians of anyone connected with athletics has served to deny status to those entrusted with this program. This fact is evidenced in many colleges by the faculty committee of academicians appointed to give surveillance to the program of athletics, primarily, it must be assumed, to keep it honest. Equally justifiable would be a committee of physical educators assigned to the task of "advising" the department of chemistry on how to conduct its affairs. This practice would not and should not be tolerated by the chemistry department. The paternal system of faculty control through the committee on athletics serves as a buffer between the program of competitive sports and the academic and general publics. It also provides a billowing skirt behind which the bad boys of athletics hide to avoid accountability for their acts.

In encouraging people to exert their best efforts, it is essential not only that responsibilities be delineated clearly but also that a climate of confidence and trust be established in the college. If enlightened action is to be expected, then it should proceed on the thesis that personnel in athletics are intelligent, professionally trustworthy and honest, and fully capable of solving educational as well as athletic problems. Moreover, it rejects the notion that professional people in this field must be legislated into practicing honesty and integrity. While it is probably true that people can be forced to conform to a code imposed from above, honesty and integrity are most effective as guides to conduct when the individual draws upon his own inner resources to govern his actions. He does right, not because it is forced upon him but because it is the thing to do. Since persons operate programs, willing adherence by individuals to ethical principles seems to hold the key to the solution of problems of conduct in many areas of human endeavor, including intercollegiate athletics. If the program of athletics does not adhere to ethical practices in a given college or university, it is probably because the wrong people are in charge.

ROLE OF PRESIDENT

Before the professional practitioner can cope successfully with the crucial issues

of athletics, however, he will need much help from many sources—particularly from the college president and the board of trustees, who are responsible for the over-all policy-making functions of the college. Because of the external pressures engendered by athletics, those in charge of this program find it extremely difficult to count on everyone concerned to hold the line once it has been cooperatively established. It is in strengthening the hand of the professional personnel in charge of athletics that the college president can wield his greatest influence.

From the very beginning of intercollegiate athletics, the college president has been tremendously concerned about his part in the program. In the early days he issued proclamations and posted rules prohibiting the playing of games on the campus, but these were of no avail. When he relied upon the faculty to throttle the athletic giant he met with only limited success. Neither has the athletic conference nor membership in such organizations as the NCAA entirely solved his problems. The college president presently finds himself harassed and sometimes severely castigated for his inability to solve the problems of intercollegiate athletics. Indeed, as most presidents will admit, they are subjected to the same pressures as the football coach. They can be, and sometimes are, summarily discharged for the same reasons the football coach is fired.

At mid-twentieth century, however, the college president cannot ignore intercollegiate athletics, even if he did inherit rather than create the problems in this field. Neither can he abolish the program by killing the patient in order to cure his ills. Indeed, if reform is to come in athletics at all, the college president must come to grips with the problems in the field and assume a role of leadership in their solution. To bolster his efforts in this crusade he will need the steadfast support of everyone connected with the college, including the board of trustees. After girding his loins for battle the president can then involve himself in the following matters:

He can be instrumental in crystallizing the philosophy and objectives of his own institution and in delineating the part intercollegiate athletics is to play in achieving these goals.

He can acquaint himself with the crucial issues in athletics and familiarize himself with the recommended principles and practices in the field. He can then set about to discover what is taking place in athletics in his own institution.

Once he has knowledge of what the situation is, he can then set the machinery in motion to make certain that athletics in his institution is controlled through the same channels as all other curricular areas of the college.

As the opportunities arise, he can recommend to the trustees for appointment only professionally qualified educators who are specialists in physical education, including athletics, and who meet the same standards of competence as other members of his faculty. The source of such personnel is likely to be other educational institutions rather than the field of professional sports or business.

Moreover, since they are qualified educators, he can insist that these teachers (coaches) and administrators be accorded faculty rank consistent with their age, education, and experience, receive the same salaries, enjoy all the rights and privileges, and assume the same responsibilities as other members of the faculty. In addition, he can make the strict adherence to established educational principles a condition of employment, promotion, or retention in his institution.

He can insist that intercollegiate athletics be made an integral phase of the educational curriculum and its benefits extended to all students.

As a phase of the curriculum, he can then seek ways of financing the program of athletics in exactly the same manner that

other aspects of the curriculum are financed —generally from appropriated funds, tuition, student fees, gifts, and endowments.

He can insist that the teachers (coaches) and other personnel connected with intercollegiate athletics be evaluated in terms of educational goals rather than on such commercial objectives as wins and losses, money taken in at the gate, or the amount of publicity accorded the teams and individuals representing his institution on the field of play.

He can give continuous surveillance to the program of athletics in his institution.

He can make certain that entrance requirements for all students are equal and see to it that athletes are neither favored nor discriminated against in meeting admission and retention requirements.

He can be instrumental in setting the qualifications and conditions pertaining to financial grants-in-aid and see that these are allocated to athletes, as well as to other students, through regular college channels.

He can make certain that athletes, along with other students, are enrolled in bona fide, educationally justifiable curricula, and in all other respects are treated the same as other students.

He can familiarize himself with the activities of personnel connected with the program of athletics in his institution and dissuade, by force if necessary, those ambitious individuals who believe that, given the opportunity—and the athletes—they can beat "State University" every Saturday afternoon in the year.

And finally, the president can make certain that a competent, full-fledged educator is appointed to administer the program of athletics in his institution. In making this appointment he can assure this person of the same academic status, confidence, trust, and cooperation accorded heads of departments in other areas of the curriculum. He can then hold him accountable for qualitative adherence to established principles and practices in the field of competitive sports and in education.

In all these matters, the president will find his burdens considerably lightened if his college is a participating member of a conference of institutions attacking these problems cooperatively. Preferably, these conference members should be traditional rivals in the field of sports, hold to similar philosophies and practices, and be somewhat equal in such matters as size, financial worth, and scholarly accomplishments.

SIZE AS A FACTOR

The size of an institution enrollment-wise has little to do with the size of its athletic program. Some small colleges with inflated levels of aspiration conduct programs of athletics far larger than warranted by the number of students on the campus. Conversely, numerous institutions with enrollments numbering in the thousands conduct modest programs of intercollegiate athletics. It is distressing, but true, that the smaller colleges, athletically speaking, form the last frontier in the quest for a program of athletics that is consistent with and contributes to the goals of higher education. The larger institutions, athletics-wise, that traditionally have formed the spearhead of intercollegiate athletics in this country have long since passed the point where they can turn toward an educationally justifiable program of competitive sports. Even if they wished to do otherwise, they are now compelled to seek more rather than less power in athletics. Tremendous monetary commitments in facilities, equipment, and manpower are involved, to say nothing of conference-sanctioned commitments to bowl games and tie-ups with commercial television and radio interests.

The wooing of off-campus support of athletics has developed into a large measure of control by vested outside interests that have little or no concern for the goals of higher education, for those who administer the educational programs, or for the young people who play the games. Although a press agent type of

justification may be made by spokesmen for the big athletic powers, little genuine concern is evidenced as to where all this fits into higher education, or what happens to the youth who are caught up in this maze of contradictions. Unfortunately, these practices have tended to set the pattern which is diligently aped—at the starvation level in most cases—by many small colleges of the country.

There is no earthly reason why colleges with modest athletic ambitions should not conduct programs of intercollegiate athletics that are educationally sound and justifiable. Most smaller colleges are relatively free from the aforementioned pressures; not by choice perhaps, but simply because few people seem to be interested in televising their contests, inviting them to participate in bowl or other post-season games, or in paying large sums at the gate to see their teams perform. These colleges, therefore, are in a better position to engage in serious soul-searching and programs of self-improvement than their more powerful brethren, athletically speaking, who, under faculty control and guidance it should be noted, have been caught up in the vicious cycle of so-called "big-time" athletics.

RESOURCES OUTSIDE THE COLLEGE

It is not too late for the smaller colleges to band together and determine to bring athletics into its own as a justifiable educational experience for college youth. These colleges can be anything they wish to be in athletics. As noted above, responsibility for the quality of the athletic program in any given college should be assumed by the professional practitioners in the field, the college president, and members of the board of trustees. There are, however, numerous avenues of assistance which may be relied upon to help the institution to help itself. One such source of aid is the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA). This organization concerns itself with the programs of more than 400 smaller and less prominent colleges in the field of competitive sports.

The NAIA can strike a blow for educational athletics if, through working conferences, it can formulate a philosophy consistent with that of higher education, develop principles, and formulate a set of objectives that are appropriate for and attainable by the colleges holding membership in the organization. Once these principles and goals are delineated and accepted by member institutions, then the NAIA might launch a program designed to help these colleges to achieve these goals at the local level. Since financial problems are at the base of all issues in intercollegiate athletics, the Association might engage in research designed to show how a satisfactory program of athletics can be conducted out of appropriated funds, thus relieving the program of the necessity of earning its way. If this could be accomplished, then it would be of no great moment who televised what game on any Saturday afternoon.

The NAIA might help personnel connected with athletics in its member institutions to place greater value on a type of professional education designed to equip them to be full-fledged college educators rather than sports technicians. If this were accomplished, then the Association might be instrumental in throwing the white light of unfavorable publicity on colleges that summarily dismiss their teachers (coaches) for other than good educational reasons. Indeed, in situations where the persons so involved have been accorded full faculty status

and the program of athletics is sound from the standpoint of education and of physical education, the American Association of University Professors might find sufficient cause to exert its influence on the colleges in behalf of the aggrieved parties. Conversely, the NAIA might draw favorable attention to the educational values of participation in college sports, and bring to the attention of the publics those colleges that organize and conduct their programs as an integral phase of the total educational curriculum.

Due to widespread publicity down through the years almost everyone in this country is familiar with the problems traditionally associated with intercollegiate athletics. Up to now no organization has been eminently successful in singling out the crucial issues in the field and doing something about them. This could be the role of the NAIA in the years to come. Instead of attempting to walk alone, however, the NAIA should join hands with such on-going organizations as the athletic conferences with which member institutions are affiliated, the NCAA, the College Physical Education Association, the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, and the appropriate regional and voluntary accrediting agencies. Thus, working together, these organizations can aid the colleges in their attempts to make athletics an indispensable factor in creating a fuller and richer life for students and a stronger and freer democracy for everyone.

Development Planning Relates to College Program and Faculty*

ABEL HANSON

GENERAL SECRETARY, TEACHERS COLLEGE

A DEVELOPMENT program that wages a continuous campaign for financial support is today an inescapable necessity for any college or university or specialized school which aims to remain or become strong." This quotation from the opening paragraph of Leaflet No. 14 of the Council for Financial Aid to Education is apt indeed, but the *record* of higher education itself in the United States for the last twenty years presents the best documentation for this sweeping statement. For purposes of maintaining current programs as well as for growth in service to a society which has a high regard for education, both publicly and privately supported institutions are concerned.

However, the problem of securing financial support in adequate measure may be somewhat more difficult to solve by privately controlled schools and colleges, which depend entirely upon tuitions and gifts and to which tax support is traditionally denied. Indeed, it is doubtful that any substantial number of private colleges would accept public support even if it were directly available. The fear of losing identity and of public control often associated with tax support is deeply lodged within independent educational institutions.

The fund-raising problem of each college is unique in the measure that the college is itself distinctive. Literally, the development program of a college must be tailor-made after analysis of its purposes, assessment of its leadership and working force, study of its public relations status, and appraisal of its gift potential. It does not follow, however, that each college must travel a completely lonely road in promotion and fund raising. Indeed, there is much of strength to be had from the companionship of united efforts.

THE UNITY OF LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES

The liberal arts colleges of the country, for example, are making good progress by means of united efforts in fund raising. They are banded together in thirty-one of the states. They are well represented on such agencies as the Council for Financial Aid to Education. They are heard at the policy-making level in the great foundations and among business corporations. The result is something of a crusade, a nation-wide rescue operation, on behalf of the liberal arts colleges.

No comparable operation in promotion and fund raising has as yet been conceived by the teachers colleges of the

* Dr. Hanson is a past president of the Metropolitan School Study Council and has held school superintendencies in Illinois, New York, and New Jersey.

country. Most of these institutions are state supported from taxes, and therefore, in securing funds, aim their efforts mainly in the direction of the respective state legislatures. Only a few of these colleges make what might be called "token" efforts to secure funds from private sources. Similarly, the graduate schools of education in the great state universities are state centered and tax supported by reason of their being constituent parts of the parent institutions. The variety in basic setting among teacher-training institutions becomes even more apparent when it is noted that the graduate schools of education in the great private universities such as Harvard, Northwestern, and Stanford are integral parts of the respective parent corporations and, as such, are presumably covered in the general fund-raising programs of those institutions. With the possible exception of George Peabody College, Teachers College, Columbia University, appears to be unique in that, while affiliated with Columbia University, it is an independently chartered institution whose program is tuned to the advanced professional levels of education and financed almost entirely from tuitions, gifts, and grants.

The purpose of this recitation is not necessarily to advocate unity of effort among teacher-training institutions in promotion and fund raising. The divergence of organization and of connection reviewed above may be too great for coordinated drives comparable to those of the liberal arts colleges. However, it is suggested that the teaching profession and teacher-training institutions, both public and private, are not receiving a share of the philanthropic dollar which is commensurate with their influence on American life. Perhaps a good look at the status of teacher-training institutions by competent and sympathetic persons might reveal yet other productive ways in which to work together for the greater effectiveness of the teaching profession and for the good of the common schools. Once such plans are conceived, funds for their execution will be required from philanthropy and may well be forthcoming.

It has been proposed that graduate schools of education might find companionship in promotion and fund raising among the graduate schools which serve such other professions as law, medicine, and engineering. There is logic to this suggestion because these colleges do for the teaching profession things which are closely comparable to what the other professions expect and receive from their graduate schools. However, the prospects for this kind of companionship are not hopeful. Education as a profession still has a long way to go in achieving full recognition by the traditional professions.

The exact point is that united efforts of colleges in promotion and fund raising are clearly valuable, but at best they are still only a supplement to the individual efforts of the cooperating institutions. There is no substitute for the unique story each college can tell or for the twists of strategy and organization which can be worked out within a single college. Over the years, for example, the uniqueness of Teachers College has been a source of great strength. It was the original graduate school of education. It still possesses unique characteristics and potentialities which can be capitalized in promotion and fund raising. The sharpness with which any college sees its mission and the clarity with which its objectives are defined will go a long way in determining the tangible results of its development program.

TWO FUNDAMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS

This suggests the two prime requisites for securing the funds sufficient to finance the future opportunities of higher education in the United States. First, it is essential to have a clear view of what a college is to do, and a sense of mission must pervade those who share this view. Second, there must be zeal on the part of faculty, administration, trustees, alumni, and students to secure the funds without which the mission cannot be accomplished. In ways most appropriate to each group, all must take part in the development program. Each of these two basic considerations deserves more detailed treatment.

One of the important and immediate benefits of development planning is that it causes a college to re-examine its role in higher education and to restate the more specific ways in which it chooses to fulfill that role. The bane of many a college fund raiser is that such statements are so vague and generalized that they have little or no value for fund-raising purposes. For example, there is little distinction or novelty about being a "liberal arts college." The Association of American Colleges Bulletin lists about 800 of them. There isn't even anything very startling about being a "good" or an "excellent" or an "outstanding" liberal arts college. With conviction and honesty many can make appropriate use of such adjectives. What is required for sales purposes is a delineation of the special mission of the given college. This delineation may be set up against the background of the liberal arts, engineering and science, medicine, teaching, the ministry, law, public service, or other areas of living. It may even be written warmly and produce nostalgia in the reader, but it will still have little sales punch if it fails to treat the unique ways in which the institution has achieved its broad purposes in the past and what is proposed for the future.

Again referring to Teachers College by way of example, a historic mission can be identified. The College was to provide advanced professional training for the profession of education. Emphasis was to be on the achievement of competence of educators on the job, and the consequent assumption of leadership responsibility by graduates of the College. Through research and experimentation the frontiers of professional knowledge were to be advanced with all possible wisdom and speed. In order to give the whole program reality and to provide channels for the dispersion of knowledge and improved practices, wide contacts were to be maintained with the field of education at all levels. These are the broad purposes which in the past have comprised the mission of Teachers College. Perhaps they are more cogent today than ever before.

But program development in American higher education never ceased with statements of general objectives recited on historic occasion by great men and women. Within the departments and institutes and among the professors, the specific things to be done had to be worked out. What courses were to be taught? What inquiries and researches were to be pursued? What library books were needed? What field contacts were to be maintained? What monies would be needed to carry forward these enterprises and from what sources could funds possibly be procured? By what means could the whole enterprise be efficiently organized and well administered? With the guidance of administrators, it was largely the faculty who worked out answers to these questions. It was the faculty who made the program of American higher

education. This fact too may be more cogent today than ever before.

None of the comments above are intended to take credit from the great philanthropists, administrators, and trustees who in the initial instance and often in series over the years provided founding ideas plus land, brick, mortar, and endowment for American colleges. To belittle their contributions would be historically inaccurate and grossly unfair. The intent here is simply to stress the fact that the key role of the faculties in working out the programs of colleges has a special significance for development planning. Without a program of instruction, research, and field service there is literally nothing for which to raise funds. In simple sales language, there is nothing to sell except the program of a college.

THE ROLE OF PROFESSORS

This leads directly to the second prime requisite for a successful development program, namely, that in appropriate ways each section of the academic family must take part in the development program. This is a practicality which is neither well understood nor widely accepted among professors in the colleges of the United States.

All too often, but with a growing number of exceptions, faculty attitudes range from indifference to curiosity, to disdain and irritation, and occasionally to opposition. There is general applause when someone else raises some money—be he administrator, professor, or fund-raising specialist. The feeling is apparent at such times that it is nice to have some sly person on hand to dream up stratagems for catching philanthropists unaware. The thought is often expressed that promotion and fund raising are a lot of "busy work" anyway, which at best is likely to disturb and divert scholars and delay them in getting ahead with the scholarly jobs at hand which are theirs as a matter of both traditional and present responsibility. In any case, promotion and fund raising are the functions of the general administrators, so it is said, and professors who haven't the time, inclination, or skill to raise money should not be expected to do so.

Observation of these and other attitudes and views makes it appear that a majority of faculty members find it very difficult to become psychologically and emotionally disposed to take part in the college development program. This presents a strange dilemma when it is also noted that the economic well-being of professors and the progress they may make in scholarly and academic affairs depend substantially upon securing funds considerably in excess of those currently at hand or even envisioned.

It may be that confusion exists regarding the terminology of what might logically be expected of the professorial staff. There is a vast difference, for example, between the solicitation of funds in the old-fashioned hat-passing sense and fund raising in the modern college sense. To merely solicit funds is neither challenging nor effective in accomplishing financial goals for education. Were this the ultimate in faculty participation, professors would have ample reason to object. But such is not the case. Rather, development in the modern sense is a spirit which permeates an educational institution. It is a technique which reaches deeply within a college for its strength. It must be as organic to alma mater as are the ivied halls and the pathways of learning. In no sense is it a diversion from the scholarly, academic, and professional activities which are traditionally assigned to professors. On the contrary, an active development program offers rare opportunities to a

faculty for enhancing and strengthening their traditional activities by means of educational promotion and fund raising. Ceilings of accomplishment for the faculty, once they recognize this relatively new dimension of an old profession, are limited only by the wisdom, scholarship, curiosity, statesmanship, and ingenuity of professors. The faculties of American colleges would be slow to confess that they are lacking in these qualities.

A PLAN OF OPERATION

Basic to faculty participation in the development program of a college, of course, is an operating plan which not only permits but encourages professors to take part in general policy formulation. It is often demonstrated that faculty members who have no share in general policy making are not much moved by the announced plans of administrators for promotion and fund raising. It is difficult for anyone to pull much weight in a project or an activity about which he has had no advance notice and in which he recognizes nothing of his own. For professors, long conditioned to cling to the treasures of academic freedom, it is psychologically impossible.

The key thought here is not essentially a defense of the principle of faculty participation in policy making. It may be assumed that both principle and practice are so well established among American colleges that no defense is needed. Rather, the point is that development plans are educationally more promising and promotionally more saleable if such are drawn from the give and take of representative faculty discussions. Equally important, professors will require no administrative prodding if some of the objects for which funds are sought are their very own. The college administrator who neglects the practice of this basic principle of development does so to the damage of his promotional and fund-raising program and perhaps at his own professional peril.

INCOME FROM TUITIONS

Some of the ways in which faculty members find it possible and desirable to participate in the development program may prove suggestive. In privately supported colleges and universities, tuitions year after year constitute the largest single source of unrestricted funds. In some colleges (and some years in still other colleges), 85 to 90 per cent of the income for the college program has come from tuition fees. Because of the impact of other phases of the development program, in many institutions the figure has now dropped to from 45 to 60 per cent. This percentage may be expected to vary over the years, depending upon the effectiveness of the general and departmental recruitment programs, the real wages of teachers and general economic conditions, endowment incomes, the demand for graduated personnel in the field, and other comparable factors. But it is perfectly clear that income from tuitions will always be a major source of funds, and it is equally clear that a top-quality program offering is perhaps the most important factor in attracting students to a college.

These considerations have a somewhat different import when applied to the graduate schools serving the profession of education at the advanced levels. The tendency of high-level graduate students is to take fewer courses for which tuition is paid, but the nature of their work requires proportionately much more of professorial time, a more mature and specialized kind of library service, and facilities for research and field service quite beyond the necessities of the undergrad-

uate. In other words, at the graduate level in education, tuition income tends to decrease and costs tend to increase when compared with the undergraduate levels. This situation exists even when fees are assessed on bases other than a standard charge per point of work taken. Even so, tuitions and fees paid by students constitute a substantial source of income. There have been years when tuitions constituted as high as 92 per cent of the income of Teachers College. In recent years, as the College has gravitated to more advanced levels of work, and has responded to the impact of an active development program, this figure has dropped to about 65 per cent.

Since the faculty makes the program of a college, the relationship in this cycle of phenomena is apparent. Top-quality instruction in course which challenges students and treats them as professional companions in the pursuit of common interests is of utmost importance. Without research, course offerings soon wear very thin. Hence, continuing research becomes a source of freshness and strength in making an instructional program of attractive quality. Similarly, a selection of field contacts is essential for program development lest instruction lose contact with reality. The point is that individually and as members of the departments, institutes, and interdivisional programs, the faculties necessarily assume major responsibility in attracting numbers of qualified students to their respective colleges. Tuition fees paid by these students will always constitute a major source of operating income for higher education in the United States.

FINANCING THE GROWING EDGE

The program of a college offers other opportunities to faculty members. On the growing edge of professorial interest are various projects in research, experimentation, and field service which require special financing to take root and flourish. Clear statements of these projects in the way of proposals can be made best by the professors most directly interested. Often the question needs to be asked, Assuming that the money were immediately available, what are the first steps to be taken and exactly what is the sequence of activities contemplated? Interested professors obviously can supply the best answers to this question.

In the process the assistance of appropriate administrators, including the development officer, can profitably be sought. This assures proper coordination among projects and eliminates the possibility of multiple or simultaneous contacts with possible sources of funds. Planning a strategy for raising the needed money becomes an automatic part of these conferences, and agreement is reached on such vital questions as which philanthropic agencies are to be approached and by whom the contacts are to be made. Experience in colleges and universities indicates that this technique for financing special projects is succeeding with growing frequency.

UNDERWRITING THE MAINSTREAM

In addition to the growing-edge kind of project referred to above, there are also opportunities for adding strength to the program of a college by special financing of selected aspects of the current mainstream of instruction, research, and field service. Internships and other contacts with the field, working contacts with social and cultural organizations, and continuing arrangements with school systems, colleges, hospitals, and health agencies are representative of the kinds of

projects which can be specially financed. In other words, those embellishments of regular program which it is sometimes difficult to finance from general funds are logical projects in development which have considerable attraction for faculty members. It may be, as some would argue, that these kinds of activities are more likely to be available to the graduate schools, and less likely to be productive at the undergraduate level. Whether graduate or undergraduate, however, it is suggested that every college will find it profitable to conduct an examination of current and recurrent program with a view to developing financial support. The endowment of professorial chairs, of scholarships and fellowships, and of designated areas of scholarly or professional work may well receive more pointed and sustained interest when related directly to program than when stemming from a collegiate quest for general endowment.

OPPORTUNITY IN FIELD SERVICE

There is yet another kind of project which opens important opportunities for faculty participation in the development program of graduate schools and colleges. Reference is made to the clinical approach to advanced professional education as it functions, for example, in the several affiliated organizations of the Institute of Administrative Research at Teachers College. The pioneer affiliate here was the Metropolitan School Study Council. The rapid manner in which the pattern of the MSSC has been adapted to many other parts of the country is no doubt a good measure of its usefulness to education.

Several sound advantages of the clinical approach to program development for a graduate school of education are now apparent. In the first place, it maintains direct contact with conditions, practices, and problems as they exist in the schools. Equally important, it has made available techniques and measures for detecting and understanding what is happening in good school systems which are favored by high tax support and which are staffed by the more competent teachers and administrators. Third, it has innovated a type of continuing contact between the personnel, facilities, and services of the graduate school of education and school systems which reach constantly for better education. This is in sharp contrast with the hit and run tactics which characterized the old-fashioned school survey. Fourth, it has provided a ready means for the collection and analysis of research data which are of substantial value to the participating school systems and to the cooperating graduate school. Fifth, it has encouraged the exchange of inventions and better practices in education among the member schools, and beyond them with schools throughout America. Sixth, it has provided a method of self-imposed fees upon the member school systems which, while it does not defray all computable costs, does underwrite the services and activities agreed upon by the school system representatives in conference with representatives of the cooperating graduate school.

The clinical approach to program development in various forms is by no means new to such professions as medicine and business administration. It has made a good start in education. It is proposed that the faculties of graduate schools give thought to ways and means for expanding the clinical approach to program development and for adapting the technique to other areas of work which are no less promising. As a matter of deliberate decision over the years,

some of these institutions have chosen by various means to stay close to their respective fields. At Teachers College, for example, this involvement with the real problems of the schools has been so engrossing that there has been little time for gravitation to ivory towers. For reasons of effective work as well as for practical reasons of finance, faculties of education should seek ways to expand working relationships with school systems, boards of education, and other agencies which share with the college a deep interest in better education.

PERSONAL CONTRIBUTIONS

No discussion of faculty participation in development programs would be complete without mention of the more personal and individual contributions which are now apparent. In many institutions professors give freely of their time and talents to the development and formulation of fund-raising projects. They are often numbered among the most valuable volunteers and committee members who constitute the backbone of the organization for promotion and fund raising. A new and inestimably valuable alertness characterizes the staff of many colleges. American higher education is now replete with examples showing how this alertness of professors in their wide contacts has resulted in substantial gifts and bequests to colleges.

In addition, many faculty members give of their substance to their colleges. Within the limits of ability, individual professors give to space and equipment needs, to fellowships, scholarships and other less conspicuous forms of student aid, and to important projects in research and field service. This is as it should be. A most persuasive situation obtains in working with foundations, corporations, and individuals when it is perfectly clear that those most directly involved in an enterprise give something of their substance toward its support.

The common thread running through this discussion is now apparent. The only justification a college has for engaging in promotion and fund raising is the program of instruction, research, and service which it makes available to the public. Since the faculty makes this program and since promotion and fund raising are organic to this process, it seems obvious that the faculty must be deeply involved in the development program. Some of the ways in which professors exercise this responsibility have been reviewed herewith. Perhaps even more effective ways can be found to challenge the inventive genius of American college faculties.

FUND RAISING AS A SUBJECT

As an adjunct to the foregoing it remains to suggest that educational promotion and fund raising as a subject should itself become a part of the program of graduate schools. Over a period of time, *development* should be given attention as a subject of instruction and as an object of research and experimentation. It may well mature into a means for field service.† Vigorous work in the direction indicated holds promise of contributing to the accomplishment of three major purposes.

First, inclusion of *development* in the course offering of graduate schools would tend to improve and strengthen the promotional and fund-raising program of colleges. It would provide an academic setting for the evolution of sounder theories. It would encourage the statement of principles and the formulation of guid-

† An initial step in this direction has now been taken. For the first time in its history, Teachers College is offering in the fall of 1956 a course in Educational Promotion and Fund Raising.

ing criteria. It would stimulate the invention of and experimentation with practices which hold great promise for educational fund raising. While emphasis should be on the problems of institutions of higher education, implications would be apparent for other agencies and institutions, both public and private, which depend measurably upon private financial support for their existence.

Second, inclusion of this area of work in the academic program of graduate schools would make it more readily possible for educational promotion and fund raising to achieve status with the faculties as a worthy academic and professional discipline. Better understanding and wider acceptance of this work in its organic relation to higher education would result. In the process more effective ways would be found to enhance the standard academic and professional activities of professors, and both administrators and professors would learn more effective ways of working together in promotion and fund raising, and in general program making.

Third, the inclusion of *development* in the program offering of graduate schools would make it possible to begin the training of graduate students who, subsequently as faculty members, administrators, and other specialists, would be competent to fulfill their roles in fund raising. At present, it is well-nigh impossible to employ a college development officer or fund raiser who has had training and experience in both education and fund raising. The unusual opportunity for performing a notable service to higher education in the United States is thus apparent.

—REVIEWS

The Development of Academic Freedom in the United States, by Richard Hofstadter and Walter P. Metzger. New York, Columbia University Press. $5.50.

Messrs. Hofstadter and Metzger have peopled their history of academic freedom with familiar mortals—clergymen sincerely trying to serve knowledge along with creed, college presidents desperately seeking to mediate between venturesome faculties and reticent donors, alumni who cannot reconcile pleasant memories with the hard reality of change, and professors perplexed over the true meaning of profession. Familiar mortals, but necessary ones if the authors are not to "play tricks on the dead." For the history of academic freedom is not, as too often portrayed, the story of a disembodied idea realizing itself over time. It is the story of men who think and act, and who govern and justify their acts with principles.

The account begins with the thirteenth-century origins of the modern university. A long introductory chapter successfully bypasses the usual caricatures of medieval university life and seeks to determine what measure of freedom the masters actually enjoyed and what principles they used to defend their freedom. As the scene shifts to the New World, the body of the work carries the story from the founding of Harvard in 1636 through the first efforts of the American Association of University Professors during World War I. Throughout, a tough-minded emphasis on people and motives provides fresh insight in a field long marked by stereotypes and shibboleths.

Let us choose an example. How, the authors ask, can the rash of academic repression cases in the 1890's be explained? What is the validity of the traditional Progressive tendency to blame the businessmen patrons of the new universities or to assume a necessary incompatibility between capitalism and academic integrity? The answers in this volume will comfort neither traditional antagonists of the businessman nor his new apologists. Indeed, they will comfort no one who perennially seeks the simple explanation; for a continuing theme of this book is the complexity and variety of personal, situational, and ideological factors which bear on the outcome of any single incident.

Consider, for instance, the discussion of two widely publicized cases of 1894; it is analytical history at its best. During that year Professors Richard T. Ely (University of Wisconsin) and Edward W. Bemis (University of Chicago) came under attack for economic and social heterodoxy. Both were well-known liberals; both were judged by boards of trustees dominated by businessmen. Yet Ely was retained while Bemis was dismissed. Indeed, the Wisconsin board took the occasion to issue a ringing defense of academic freedom which has since been virtually immortalized. Why and wherein the distinction? The authors are obliged to locate it in "non-ideological" differences, in the personalities and reputations of the professors, the accusers, and those who made the judgments.

By way of further illustration, the authors describe the sorry spectacle at Kansas State Agricultural College during the same period. A state victory for the Democrats and Populists in 1896 resulted in the termination of all faculty contracts and the appointment of "politically favorable" individuals to the presidency and the department of economics. When the Republicans were returned to power three years later, what had proved sauce for the goose was

deemed sauce for the gander. Neither side was above converting the College into a political orchard; the liberals acted illiberally, the conservatives preserved man's less noble traditions, the trustees misconstrued their trust, and the Kansas electorate confused community with conformity. The players, once again, are familiar.

But what, then, of principle? Do not accounts of fallible men and tangled situations throw principle to the winds? On the contrary, they serve to endow principle with meaning; and here is this history's most fundamental contribution to our understanding. True, we are made to sense the continuity of a principle which begins with Socrates and extends through generations of teachers to contemporary America. But more importantly, we are given insight into the props and stays which have buttressed the principle at different times.

We learn, for example, that academic repression can come from clerical and secular sources alike, from elected officials as well as private citizens, from majorities as well as minorities, from narrow men no matter what their philosophical conviction, or lack of it. We relearn the dictum of William Henry Chamberlain, that if men are asked to choose between freedom and bread, they will choose bread—or even the promise of bread. Thus, the logical and historical inseparability of academic freedom and tenure. We relearn, too, a principle as old as Greek pre-history, that rules written down mean the same rule for all. Hence, the importance of clear and careful codifications of academic prerogative and responsibility accepted by those who sponsor, control, and conduct the academic enterprise.

Finally, we learn something by inference. When all the props and stays of any freedom have been erected, when relevant power of various sorts has been balanced and tamed, there still remains one requisite: the will to preserve the freedom must have entered the tradition and outlook of the people. Of all freedom's buttresses, this public disposition is at once the least definable and the most important. One need only count the constitutions which the modern world has seen ratified and abrogated to sense its centrality.

To raise this issue, however, is to call to mind the one limitation of the volume: it never seems fully to relate the matter of academic freedom to the distinctive social role of American higher education. Although there is considerable discussion of academic control—indeed, the book is probably the most penetrating history of higher education available—and although trustees, state legislators, regents, jurists, and alumni parade in large numbers across its pages, one fails to derive a picture of the historic responsiveness of American colleges and universities to the demands of the American community. The relationship, of course, differs in the case of public and private institutions and among individual institutions of the same type; but the public responsibility of the state universities and the increasingly quasi-public character of private universities pose a unique problem for any discussion of academic freedom. How much can the American public demand of its universities; how much must the American public by common consent and legal injunction be unwilling to demand?

The authors allude to the problem when they point to the twentieth-century tendency to address statements concerning academic freedom to the public. Had the volume not stopped with World War I, the problem might well have come more sharply into focus. Yet in a way the problem is as old as the seventeenth-century practice by which colonial legislatures chartered independent schools and colleges; and one misses it in any historical discussion of academic freedom. No problem has been more central to recent legislative inquiries into college and university life, and no problem will loom so large as enrollments at the higher level continue to climb and colleges and universities seek ever broader bases of financial and moral support.

LAWRENCE A. CREMIN
Teachers College, Columbia

Teaching World Affairs in American Schools: A Case Book, edited by Samuel Everett and Christian O. Arndt. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1956. xv + 270 pp. $4.

It is a difficult task to present world affairs adequately in the classroom. Too often what starts as an effort to improve international understanding may end in either increased ethnocentrism on the part of the student or a mental file of "queer" customs. When materials about world affairs and cultural understanding were first introduced in the classroom there seemed to be an assumption that if children learned to do folk dances and eat foreign food, understanding would be a natural by-product. Unfortunately this has not been true and there is evidence to suggest that, unless skillfully handled, the teaching of world affairs or cultural understanding can strengthen the very attitudes and viewpoints that the teacher is attempting to change or redirect.

Teaching World Affairs in American Schools is a case book of current practices in international education. *Education for a World Society*, published by the John Dewey Society in 1953, stated the responsibilities American schools have for education for world affairs. The present publication, authorized by the Executive Board of the Society, is an attempt to follow up the 1953 volume with examples of international education found in schools and colleges. In addition to citing cases found in the classrooms of elementary, junior high school, and senior high school, the book gives examples of all-school and out-of-class activities, system-wide school and community services, and college, teacher, and adult education. Typical examples are reports of how a sixth-grade class in Pittsburgh studies the Chinese people; how a twelfth-grade class teaches international understanding through literature; how a Utah county utilizes foreign students; how community groups such as the World Affairs Council of Philadelphia work with the schools; how international understanding is taught to a group of teachers who spend a month living in a Mexican village.

The material included was supplied and in some instances edited by an advisory casebook committee of ten members. The book does not claim to represent all sections of the United States, but of necessity was limited by the material that could be gathered by members of the committee. One is impressed with the great number of examples cited from California and Pennsylvania.

It is assumed that the many cases offered in the book are presented to stimulate interest in developing programs of international education. Few teachers could or would want to adopt *in toto* the examples cited. However, if a teacher is interested in this area, here is a veritable mine of ideas to be adapted to local needs and conditions.

As is evident in this book, international education is no longer the monopoly of the field of social studies. For just as citizenship has come to be looked upon as a product of all areas concerned with developing those characteristics desirable in a good citizen, so international education encompasses those basic beliefs and attitudes found in many disciplines which lead to a better understanding of the world in which we live.

One great strength of the book is that international education is viewed as a cumulative process. The primary school teacher is credited with building the foundations upon which the more complicated and intricate studies of people and nations found in high school and college can be developed.

The evaluation of a casebook of this type can be done only by evaluating contributions calculated to produce basic understandings suitable for the child or adult at his particular level of development. In this respect the majority of cases cited are successful. Few cases rely upon increasing international understanding by osmosis.

It is apparent that the success of the examples in the book is based upon the degree to which the teacher or leader is (1) interested in international education and (2) competent to deal with the basic principles

fundamental to any area of international education, whether it be in the first grade or in college. For this reason it would appear that *Teaching World Affairs in American Schools* should be thought of as a companion book to *Education for a World Society*.

DAVID G. SCANLON
Newark (N. J.) State Teachers College

American Society: Urban and Rural Patterns, by Edmund deS. Brunner and Wilbur C. Hallenbeck. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1955. xviii + 601 pp. $6.

This book is designed as a college text in sociology for students who possibly will be taking a single terminal course in the field. Its chief focus is on the American community. Its scope extends from the hamlet to the metropolis.

The authors are eminently qualified to write such a book. Dr. Brunner is a well-known rural sociologist, coauthor of a standard text in the field, and has had rich experience in rural life studies both in the United States and abroad. Dr. Hallenbeck is an urban sociologist, author of a basic text in the urban field. Thus, together they are able to bridge the gap between rural and urban sociology. The experience of both authors with problems of an educational nature is reflected in a strong slant toward problems of an educational and dynamic character that should be especially appealing to students in teachers colleges and schools of education.

Among the important topics treated are: the shift that has taken place throughout the years from a highly rural to a highly urbanized society; the variation in types of communities currently found in the United States, from the small neighborhood group to the metropolitan center; and the growing importance of the interstitial or suburban community that is rapidly developing between city and country. Attention is also given to community organization and community planning.

Suggested topics for class discussion and for individual investigation have been included at the end of each chapter along with selected references for outside reading.

The text is profusely illustrated with thirty-one figures and eighty-five photographs, all appropriately selected to represent various aspects of the subjects discussed.

The work contains a minimum of theory, and hence would probably not be very suitable in an introductory course for students desiring to major in sociology. Its emphasis on social change and practical problems, however, should make it a valuable text.

N. L. WHETTEN
The University of Connecticut

Teaching World Understanding, edited by Ralph C. Preston. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955. x + 201 pp.

This book consists of a series of articles by a group of eight Quaker educators on various aspects of the problem of developing international understanding. Ralph Preston, who is Professor of Education at the University of Pennsylvania and well known for his writing on the social studies in the elementary schools, is both editor and contributor. In a short introduction and the first chapter, he deals with some of the basic issues involved in teaching world understanding. He discusses such questions as whether attitudes can be changed, whether deliberate education is a form of propaganda, and whether educating for world understanding is in conflict with educating for patriotism. Preston is author of the final chapter also, which, while it is supposed to deal with world understanding in the curriculum, is actually a summary of the entire book. In between, there are chapters devoted to studying other nations and peoples in the elementary and secondary schools (by Leonard Kenworthy of Brooklyn College) and to teaching world understanding through world affairs and school assemblies, plus chapters devoted to developing such

understanding through service activities (for example, collecting and sending materials abroad), work camps, and international school affiliations. All of the contributors write on the basis of their experience gained in participating in international educational activities sponsored by the Quakers.

On the whole, this is a very good book and one that should be of real value to teachers interested in developing international understanding. It is optimistic without being unrealistic. The authors present in a straightforward way the facts and concepts they believe must be taught, together with numerous practical suggestions for teaching them. Few educators interested in world peace could find fault with the values expressed on these pages. They are characteristically Quaker, which is to say that they center around the notion of the latent goodness in each individual and of the brotherhood of man. This is accomplished with only one or two references to Quaker religious beliefs, and these should not bother the non-Quaker reader.

The suggested methods of teaching and activities are excellent. There is some repetition. For example, the idea of using resource visitors from other cultures is mentioned several times. Probably this is unavoidable in a book by eight authors all of whom are coming at the same problem from a different angle, but it does not detract substantially from the value of the book, and teachers, whether they use it individually or in groups will find this volume a gold mine of ideas for teaching international understanding.

Teaching World Understanding has many other strong points. Although the basic question of whether attitudes can be changed is answered in the affirmative after a treatment this reviewer considers too brief, the healthy notion that there is need for substantial research as a guide to future action in this field is stressed. Kenworthy notes that "teachers have taught about other lands and peoples for many years, but they have had little proof that they really accomplished what they set out to do." The point is made that good will, while necessary, is not enough and that much knowledge is essential. And in the process of gathering this knowledge, the suggestion is made that studying fewer countries more thoroughly is of more value than skimming over a great many. Finally, Preston warns of the dangers of verbalization which gives the illusion, but not the substance, of real learning and cannot, therefore, lead to understanding.

According to the editor of the volume, the aim of the authors was to "construct a volume offering description, arrangement and practical suggestion to the increasing number of teachers who are seeking to develop in children and youth an understanding of world cultures which will help prepare them to work effectively as adults toward a warless world." This has been done and done well. The equally important, and perhaps more basic problem, namely that of developing such understanding in teachers, was not dealt with directly, and it was, of course, beyond the scope of this book. But the truth is that despite the efforts of men such as Leonard Kenworthy and George Counts, teachers have very little knowledge of world cultures and only limited opportunity to acquire such knowledge in their undergraduate and graduate work. It is to be hoped that teachers using this volume will recognize the need for *learning* about other cultures before they attempt to teach children in this area.

RAYMOND E. CALLAHAN
Washington University

Education and the Supreme Court, by Clark Spurlock. Urbana, University of Illinois Press, 1955. xv + 252 pp. $3.75.

In this useful book the author quotes extensively and comments at length on thirty-seven of forty-five cases affecting education which have been brought before the Supreme Court since 1789. Thirty-six of these cases have appeared on the docket of the Court since 1901. Eight were decided between 1951 and 1954. This rising frequency

of appeals to the Court is no cause for surprise, as the author notes. The exigencies of history and the influence of strong personalities on the Court have insured its participation, though in an oblique manner, in the conduct of education.

The author divides his treatment of the cases into three parts. The first part takes up questions of state and Federal powers and function. In these cases, action by state legislatures or by the Congress bearing upon education was decided by the Court on the basis of those sections of the Constitution setting up the structures and powers of government. In the second part, controversies were before the court relative to public assistance to church-associated schools, restrictions on the free exercise of religion and on the matter of loyalty oaths. In the third, those cases having to do with segregation predominate. A concise and informative conclusion follows.

We are reminded in Spurlock's conclusion that the Justices of the Court are committed like no other public servants to give reasons for their judgments "at the moment of performance." Furthermore, they need premises and derive them from their understanding of national aspirations and goals. This is an important insight into the nature of the judicial process. Cardozo, with slightly different emphasis, but relative to the same matter, states that "The whole system which they (the judges) develop has been built on the assumption that it is an expression of the mores." How is the judge to evaluate properly what the mores are and to avoid the suggestive power of individual dislikes? He does not, but his training and "the judicial temperament" (if he has it) should be of great help, according to Cardozo.

To understand a Supreme Court decision is not a formidable task, as the author notes. The law involved may not be entirely clear, but the judges have a way of writing into their decisions comments which clarify the "whole." Many of these comments reveal a philosophy. Some uncover the judicial strife often attending constitutional decisions. The latest educational cases are replete with such comments. For example, in dissenting from the majority opinion in the Gobitis case (1940), which declared that a school board could make school attendance conditional upon participation in the flag salute, Justice Stone writes, "How much more effective an instrument of patriotic education it would be if the flag salute itself were made a practical daily exercise of a fundamental liberty which is one of the four great freedoms which this nation upholds." He continues, "The placing of symbolic exercises on a higher plane than freedom of conscience has made this symbol an instrument of oppression of a religious minority." Three years after the Gobitis decision, Jackson wrote the majority opinion in the Barnette case, which set aside the former. He states, "To believe that patriotism will not flourish if patriotic ceremonies are voluntary and spontaneous instead of a compulsory routine is to make an unflattering estimate of the appeal of our institutions to free minds. . . . We can have intellectual individualism and the rich cultural diversities that we owe to exceptional minds only at the price of occasional eccentricity and abnormal attitudes."

The heat generated among the Justices relative to these cases prompted Frankfurter's well-known comment that if the Court set itself up as a forum in which choices were made on educational policy, it would, in effect, become "the school board for the country." He also doubted the competence of the Court to deal with educational questions. Jackson energetically refutes this evaluation when he writes in the Barnette decision that assertions by the Court of its official authority do not "depend upon our possession of marked competence in the field where the invasion of rights occurs. . . . We act in these matters not by authority of our competence but by force of our commissions. We cannot, because of modest estimates of our competence in such specialties as public education, withhold the judgment that history authenticates as the function of this Court when liberty is infringed."

Apparently not impressed by modest eval-

uations of its competence, the Court has commented quite freely on educational matters since 1943. In Sweatt vs. Painter (1950), Vinson, commenting on a segregated law school for Negroes, says that "few students and no one who has practiced law would choose to study in an academic vacuum, removed from the interplay of ideas and the exchange of views with which the law is concerned." Much the same educational value is announced by Vinson in the McLaurin case (1950) relative to the segregation of the complainant, who was working for his doctorate in education at the University of Oklahoma. Vinson writes that the restrictions imposed on McLaurin "impair and inhibit his ability to study, to engage in discussions and exchange views with other students, and, in general, to learn his profession." Observing that today, education is perhaps the most important function of state and local government, Chief Justice Warren in the Brown case (1954), declaring segregation in the public schools unconstitutional, supports the Court's competence in educational matters by placing educational authorities in his footnotes. This is not a new practice, for the Court has with increasing frequency referred to extralegal authority. It is quite new, however, in the field of education. One might very well expect that the Court will continue to provide us with enlightening statements about education in the future.

Spurlock's book is an interesting and effective presentation of constitutional law as it touches upon education. The selection and arrangement of cases are good. They are also presented in such a way in relation to one another that one can clearly see the importance of reading each one not only as a whole but also as part of a continuum relating to segregation, the flag salute, loyalty oaths, public support of parochial schools, teacher tenure, and other educational problems of constitutional importance.

DONALD VAN CLEVE
New York State College for Teachers, Albany

Higher Learning in Britain, by George F. Kneller. Berkeley and Los Angeles, University of California Press. 1955. xii + 301. $6.

What is the function of a university in an increasingly industrial society? How is it to reconcile the heritage of learning for its own sake with the growing demands for professional specialization? How will it preserve academic self-government and independence when driven increasingly to accept government financing? Can it open democratically the gates to all those who crave admission and at the same time preserve the rarefied standards of scholarly attainment? Can it train democratic "leaders" while avoiding the intellectual arrogance almost inevitable in a status oriented society?

Some such questions are not unfamiliar to American universities in their battles with Chancellor Hutchins, or Senator McCarthy, or in their contemplation of the coming avalanche of students. Some such questions were asked in Germany when the universities backed Göttingen's strike against the appointment of Leonhard Schluter as Minister of Education in Saxony.[1] Some such questions find their echo even in distant Australia, where the demands to increase salaries on the one hand, and to lower matriculation requirements on the other, ended recently in an open conflict between the faculty and the administration of the University of Tasmania.[2]

To such questions, in quiet, cautious, but nevertheless persistent ways the British universities are attempting to find answers. They are slowly and hesitatingly expanding in order to provide scientific training and professional skills, yet they jealously guard the heritage of teaching liberal arts. They have accepted an overwhelming government support, yet through the device of the University Grants Committee they only very gradually adopt a new attitude toward government interference. They have sought to accommodate themselves to an influx of new

[1] *Time*, New York, June 20, 1955, p. 33.
[2] *Times Educational Supplement*, London, January 6, 1956, p. 5.

numbers in unprecedented proportions yet they continue to insist on high standards. They have been forced to recruit on an intellectual rather than a socioeconomic basis (insofar as the two differ) yet they seek to enforce the gentlemanly ways of life upon all.

Mr. Kneller's book attempts to give an account of what has happened in British universities since the war. On the basis of a two years' sojourn, research in printed sources, and apparently a great deal of personal correspondence he has furnished a report of the current organization, problems, and controversies in British universities. Mr. Kneller's book falls into three parts. In the first four chapters he describes the organization and functioning of British universities. In the following four chapters he discusses on the basis of English writings the controversies that underlie their philosophical foundations. In the final chapter he pulls the results of his inquiries together in a critical evaluation and summary. To an uninitiated reader this book, and particularly its bibliography, will provide a useful introduction to British universities.

Higher Learning in Britain could be criticized only from the point of view of a specialized student. To him the strength sought by Mr. Kneller in "objectivity" will appear to be weakness. The book lacks unity, conceptual scheme, and analytical vigor. It is a mistake to seek the answers to the realities of higher learning, as Mr. Kneller does, in the bewildering diversity of published opinions. He rightly noted that in personal correspondence "authors in nearly every instance tended to be less dogmatic and more conciliatory than in their published works" (p. viii). Although they actively teach and their disagreements must project somewhat into practical policies, the academic dons are much greater conformists than Mr. Kneller gives them credit for being. Unlike the American universities, the British institutions are not in the advance guard but rather in the rear guard. They are more concerned with the preservation of good traditions than with the achievement of good progress. In a traditional society, to use one of his own quotations, "institutions of men grow old like men themselves and, like women, are last to perceive their own decay." The British universities have always been "respectable" above all, and every new one attempts to become so. Old or new, they are places for training gentlemen. It is "bad form" for gentlemen to try hard, especially to try hard to reform themselves. The tradition of cautiousness, hesitation, and succeeding without appearing to try goes far toward explaining the successes and failures of British universities. Some such conceptual unity would have given the book coherence and a sense of direction which it lacks until the final chapter.

The book unfortunately must also be criticized for its lack of attention to scholarly detail. As an example let us take the case of the University College of North Staffordshire. It is probably through a misprint that this college, the first English college to reflect the American patterns of higher education, appears in the text as University of North Staffordshire (p. 31 and p. 301; it is named correctly in an indexed reference on p. 51). But it cannot be by a misprint that it seems to be counted (p. 33) as one of the ten civic universities rather than being added to the three university colleges in existence in 1952. Is the Staffordshire campus at Keele so distinguished because it alone among university colleges has the power to grant degrees? St. David's College at Lampeter also has this privilege and it is not even on the government grant lists. If one wishes to allot a special rating to Keele, ought not one to consider that it may owe its special position, quite out of proportion to its age and experience, to the patronage of Oxford, and also of Birmingham and Manchester? The author mentions the facts, though not always correctly, but refrains from furnishing explanations.

Mr. Kneller has limited himself to the role of an uncommitted reporter, thus depriving his work of the force and freshness of personal analysis of which one senses him to be capable. While one cannot blame the

author for not doing what he apparently has taken pains to avoid, one cannot help wishing that he had been less cautious and less impersonal. It is perhaps not irrelevant to point out that his style does not share the reticence of his method. His authorities are forever "august" or "artful" or "acid" or they "sink their philosophical daggers into the heart" or even "couch their lance for a brief duel with Lancelot. . . ." Mr. Kneller has also an irritating habit of referring to himself as "we." One sometimes wonders whether this is *pluralis modestiae* or *pluralis majestatis*.

GEORGE Z. F. BEREDAY
Teachers College, Columbia

The Liberal and Technical in Teacher Education, by Merle L. Borrowman. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956 xvi + 247 pp. $5.

Doubtless there are better ways to begin the review of a book than to use a cliché, but after having read and re-read Borrowman's *The Liberal and Technical in Teacher Education*, I find myself resorting to a pronouncement which heretofore has been irritating to me—"No one concerned with teacher education can afford to be without this book." It is a clear, concise, scholarly weaving together of the often meandering, sometimes obscure, threads of the history of teacher education in the United States. But this is not merely another chronological history of the field; it is an interpretative history, developed with a sensitiveness to the nuances of fact that is impressive. And its basic task is to search for means of reconciling, in the author's view, a spurious dichotomy between the liberal and the technical, or the general and the professional, in the education of teachers. From the chronological aspect, the book contains comprehensive materials which, to the best of my knowledge, have never been brought together in one volume before. True, much of the sequential history has been delineated previously, but it has been so scattered that the person who "reads as he runs" never seems to see it in perspective. For this reason alone, forgetting momentarily the superb quality of the document, this book is a "must" for the teacher of teachers, and especially for those graduate school instructors who are dealing with the processes of the history and philosophy of teacher education.

While Dr. Borrowman, as he states in his Preface, really sets out to illuminate the current controversy which swirls around the alleged weaknesses in our schools, and especially that which continues among segments of higher education regarding the proper balance in the education of teachers (he does that admirably), one of the fascinating things about the book (to me) is the manner in which he develops the historical evolution of teacher education.

I suppose one might summarize the dominating motif of this book with the author's phraseology that "American formal education has been paradoxically vulnerable to the evil of two excesses. The first, which it shares with institutionalized education the world over and at all times, is an irresponsiveness to change. . . . The second is a tendency to faddism, a characteristic which it shares with most of the American culture. This has been apparent in the tidal sweep of the Oswego movement, Herbartianism, progressive education, the elective system, and the current general education movement. The clash of fad with tradition has been the American educational dialectic, out of which has come significant change." And then he says, "If a tradition can be either a priceless asset or a grave threat to society, then tools to analyze the record of traditions are extremely important. Probably the best such tool is history."

One must agree. The best tool is history, and Borrowman brilliantly unravels the history of teacher education in this country, to yield with unusual clarity why teacher education has come to be what it is and why there is continuing and bitter argument about it, and to indicate without belaboring

the point that the solution lies in better communication among those who are directly concerned with the process.

The book is organized into five chapters: "Some Problems Areas in the Education of American Elementary and Secondary School Teachers," "American Teacher Education Prior to 1865," "The 'Strictly Professional' Ideal and the University Study of Education, 1865-1895," "New Educational Doctrines and Collegiate Teacher Education, 1895-1930," and "The Search for New Guides to Teacher Education, 1930-1952."

I found Chapter 2 of the book the most challenging, probably because it filled in so many gaps in my own knowledge about the origin and the development of the professional concept of teacher education in the United States.

But my guess is that for more competent students in the field, Chapter 5, "The Search for New Guides to Teacher Education, 1930-1952," will be the most appealing. This is a brilliant delineation of the search for the reconcilement which forms the basic purpose of the book. Here is the thesis:

> It remains an open question whether or not men have sufficient faith in each other to create a new moral persuasion by honest discussion and free inquiry. In education, as in every other branch of American life, the easy retreat to a faith already spelled out in the dogma of the past has been chosen with increasing frequency over the hard path to a new moral order hammered out in the forum of free thinkers.

This entire chapter is an example of skillful writing. By all odds, the book is the most lucid treatment of the subject I have been privileged to read.

T. M. STINNETT
Washington, D. C.

With Perspective on Human Relations, by Hilda Taba. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1955. 155 pp. $1.75.

Ten years of creative research have linked Hilda Taba and intergroup education in the minds of curriculum planners and others concerned with human relations. The stream of written materials ranges from how-to-do-it manuals (*Diagnosing Human Relations Needs*), to reports on research and curriculum development (*Intergroup Education in Public Schools*), to book lists (*Reading Ladders for Human Relations*). This latest book depicts an eighth-grade class that served as a laboratory for learning democratic human relations.

Good teaching, Taba points out, is more than an arrangement of the conditions for learning in terms of materials and activities; it must also stimulate all aspects of growth: intellect, feelings, actions, and skills. The fundamental hypothesis tested in this experiment was that the school can do more than it is now doing to develop social sensitivity and to reduce ethnocentricity. Toward these ends, the school should analyze the psychological and social factors which culminate in concepts, understandings, feelings and social skills vital to harmonious human relations.

The program had three phases: (1) it attempted to extend social sensitivity through fiction that illustrated values, behaviors, and solutions differing from the experiences of the students; (2) it emphasized learning how to handle feelings as facts, as realities which control human conduct; and (3) it explored existing interpersonal relations and used these as a basis for training students in the principles and practices of democratic living.

The class consisted of twenty-five students, heterogeneously selected from the eighth grade of a public elementary school in an eastern industrial city. The school served a lower class neighborhood with three rather distinct sections. The major difference from the usual school program lay in the emphasis on human relations in the subject content, teaching methods, and classroom arrangements. The teacher devoted two and one-half hours daily to three subjects: social studies, literature, and guidance. A combination of fiction with sociological and psychological principles key-

noted the program. The social sciences and literature were integrated as tools to change methods of thinking and feeling, rather than for specific content.

The data gathered served many purposes: diagnosing needs; helping to determine what students should learn and how the teacher ought to teach; continuous evaluating. Collecting evidence, therefore, served to advance the teaching–learning complex as well as the research design itself. An attempt to examine the total consequences of the program (intellectual understandings, emotional insights, practical skills) uncovered new potency for producing changes in feeling and conduct.

Available data included sociometric tests and interviews, open themes, student diaries, records of discussions, intelligence and achievement tests, continuous anecdotal records of events, a log of the program, and parent interviews. These are all described in detail as to both structure and use. The data-gathering procedures are woven into the theoretical discussions and the descriptions of activities.

Taba describes in detail the social context and its role in learning, the structure of classroom relations, the group's value systems, and student sensitivities. Findings point to significant alterations in the feelings, sensitivities, and values of the group that did not disrupt individual personalities. There was no probing of the roots of existing values or of the extent to which they are a composite of the value preferences of the group members.

The strength of this monograph is in the way it spells out the methods and materials the classroom teacher followed in changing the climate, content, and culture of the class; the procedures she used in studying her students and the effectiveness of her teaching. Numerous anecdotes picture what happened in the class. For example, there is an appendix which gives the sequence of reading materials used in class discussions. Such lengthy data would be verbose if they were meant only to support the hypothesis. However, the details do extend the usefulness of the report to the classroom teachers and to other students of classroom research.

The instruments illustrate the elusiveness of evidence to clarify the intangibles of teaching in a setting which stimulates or blocks learning by its social climate and interpersonal relations. The whole work pays tribute to teamwork in action research.

A number of questions remain unanswered by the study, though the author suggests that perhaps other researchers will be challenged. Supervisors and curriculum planners interested in the role of interpersonal relationships in learning and the effects of group dynamics on instruction might note the author's suggestions.

A. Harry Passow
Teachers College, Columbia

The Diagnosis and Treatment of Learning Difficulties, by Leo J. Brueckner and Guy L. Bond. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1955. 424 pp. $5.

This book deals with why some children do not learn effectively in school and suggests what can be done to remedy the situation. It is especially concerned with the "procedures that teachers can use to appraise the outcomes of the educational program, the techniques that teachers may use to diagnose the nature and causes of learning difficulties, and the methods by which developmental and corrective measures of various kinds can be adjusted to meet the needs of the individual learner." Difficulties in reading, arithmetic, spelling, language, and handwriting are dealt with. The book is written primarily for classroom teachers and as a textbook for college courses. However, the authors point out that there is much for the specialist as well. Although the discussion is intended to span the years from the primary grades to the senior high school and college, it is perhaps inevitable that most attention is paid to the elementary school. Readers who are interested in the higher levels will be disappointed.

The contents may be divided into two parts. The first part, comprising the first quarter, deals with the nature of educational diagnosis, the factors related to learning difficulties, the general techniques of diagnosis, and the principles underlying the treatment of learning difficulties. The second consists of applications of these principles to reading, arithmetic, language, spelling, handwriting, and to the organization of the school for remedial work.

In the second part of the book there are many suggestions for appropriate tests of specific weaknesses, and exercises to overcome these weaknesses. These suggestions are so detailed that the teacher will actually be able to use them as models for her materials. To the teacher who must decide tonight what to do tomorrow with a child who cannot divide by two-place numbers, such techniques are a welcome aid. To this extent the book will be useful.

In terms of a longer and deeper view of learning difficulties it is less satisfying. This reviewer finished the book with a sense of disappointment; there were few of the fresh insights to be anticipated from two respected leaders. It is a paradox that despite the upsurge of interest in the learning of the 3 R's there seems to be so little new and solid research coming from the universities.

Most of the work upon which the book is based was done during the 20's and 30's. The latest reference in the chapter on spelling is 1947 and seven of nine references were published in 1941 or earlier; the latest reference in the chapter on handwriting is 1942. Much of this earlier work is still applicable; but it isn't enough. We still have children whose difficulties in spelling or handwriting or for that matter, reading, we do not understand. A new approach is needed.

The authors can be pardoned for not clearing a new path through the forest. It is more difficult to understand their having overlooked the few available trail marks left by learning theorists, clinicians, and those who work in the communication arts. Part of the difficulty, no doubt, lies in their attempt to list and classify in textbook fashion the causes of learning difficulty and the types of difficulties encountered. This neat classification leads to oversimplification and lack of vitality. For example, "emotional difficulties" is listed as a reason for failure to learn in school. However, no attempt is made to explore the purposes school learning may serve in the lives of children, and thus to develop an understanding of why and in what ways emotions may interfere with the learning process. The book deals with learning, but there is no discussion of the highly personal nature of perception and learning. It may be that the authors believed such discussions to be overly theoretical for their purposes. Nevertheless, such omissions seemed to render the theoretical sections of the book mechanical and sterile.

This sense of sterility seemed aggravated by an unnecessarily technical vocabulary. It is a book about "cases" not about children. Cases are classified as "simple retardation," "simple disability," or "complex disability." Diagnosis is "general" or "analytical."

In summary, the book is sound, but it left this reviewer dissatisfied. It is estimable but not exciting.

ANNE MCKILLOP
Teachers College, Columbia

Organizing the Teaching Profession, by American Federation of Teachers, Commission on Educational Reconstruction. Glencoe, Ill., Free Press, 1955. 320 pp., $4.50.

The American Federation of Teachers has just reached its fortieth birthday, and hence a book dealing with its struggles and achievements seems timely. The Commission on Educational Reconstruction of the American Federation of Teachers has painted a rather complete, even if at times a somewhat distorted, picture of the organization's role in American education. It professes to be a "story of what teachers themselves have done to raise teaching to a respected professional status in America" and to tell "how teachers have been able to

establish their rights as teachers and as citizens in school and community."

Students of education and those interested in professional organizations—their programs and procedures—will find this book a valuable source of information. In fact, it is the best single portrayal of the A. F. of T. that has come to the writer's attention. In reading it, however, one needs to be conscious of the bias which almost inevitably creeps in whenever former officers and loyal supporters of an organization attempt to write its history or make an appraisal of its activities. Too often cause and effect relationships have been assumed where only correlation existed. In many cases it seems probable that other forces besides the efforts of the A. F. of T. contributed to the resulting victory or achievement. To illustrate, the claim (which is implied) that the state subsidy program of ten million dollars in Connecticut in 1947 was achieved as a result of the efforts of the Connecticut Federation of Teachers seems a bit questionable in light of concurrent influences that had a bearing on the situation. Moreover, the claim that a single salary schedule for Minneapolis teachers, together with equal pay and abolition of the merit plan, was achieved by the A. F. of T. locals, unassisted by other groups, is scarcely believable. Nearly 98 per cent of American cities today have single salary schedules, most of which have been adopted without strong union support. Similarly, equal pay in 1956 is becoming the rule rather than the exception, even where state laws do not demand it. Also, less than 10 per cent of city school systems employ merit ratings in connection with their salary schedules. Hence, one wonders whether Minneapolis would have lagged a decade behind all these universal trends even without the efforts of the A. F. of T.

The above claims sound all the stranger when set beside the authors' own observation that "it is rarely possible for a Federation to say this we did and thereby achieved that." Throughout the volume the reader is led to believe that much of the progress achieved in welfare legislation and the improvement of professional standards can be attributed primarily to efforts of the A. F. of T., buttressed and supported by labor. Certainly during the past three decades the NEA, State Teachers Associations, the Congress of Parents and Teachers, and several other groups friendly to education have contributed greatly to the general uplift of the teaching profession.

After measuring the extent of their claims, it should immediately be pointed out, on the other hand, that the A. F. of T. has been a powerful influence in speeding up reforms and in spearheading movements which have culminated in significant improvements in teacher welfare.

A second way in which the partisanship of the authors colors their evaluation is, as might be expected, in criticizing its rivals and in pointing out where they have failed. To many readers this will not enhance the value of the volume. The NEA, State Teachers Associations, local education associations, superintendents of schools—all come in for disparagement and, by contrast, make the A. F. of T. appear courageous and unselfish. In discussing teacher tenure legislation in Ohio, to cite one instance, the authors point out that "It is probable that teacher tenure in Ohio would exist today in name only were it not for the efforts of the Ohio Federation of Teachers." Then referring to a bill aimed at the repeal of the court clause of the tenure bill, the authors state ". . . the Ohio Federation of Teachers alone offered this bill. . . . the Ohio Education Association was roundly criticised by its own members for its inactivity."

Further disparagement is reflected in the following statement: "A number of state federations report . . . that state education associations have been lukewarm in support of teacher welfare measures, such as tenure, retirement salary, maximum class size, and certification standards. In some instances, legislation of doubtful merit has been introduced under the auspices of the educational association." Whether or not these situations were as represented, the belittle-

ment of sister organizations is likely to make the reader react negatively to the authors' evaluation.

Since the A. F. of T. has met with considerable opposition in many communities and has indeed been compelled to fight for its very existence, it is understandable that it should be jealous of its accomplishments and somewhat belligerent in its attitude toward competing groups. The reader will scarcely fail to sense this point of view, since it is frequently revealed.

Perhaps the most significant contribution made by the authors is the presentation of the A. F. of T. program and the union approach to achieving its goals. One can scarcely familiarize himself with the portrayal of the A. F. of T. activities without a genuine appreciation of the broad and highly significant program which the organization is sponsoring. The chapters on "Equalizing Educational Opportunities," "The School and Social Life," and "Larger Issues" are unusually challenging.

Readers will also be interested in the discussions bearing on negotiating with school boards, democratic school administration, and the logic of affiliating with labor. While these are highly controversial topics, they have been ably dealt with.

In conclusion, it has been the experience of the writer that educators generally are rather ignorant of the history and program of the A. F. of T. There is much misunderstanding both about the platform of this organization and about its accomplishments. Here is a book which contains a clear presentation of the goals and the struggles of this important teachers' organization. It is well worth reading.

WILLARD S. ELSBREE
Teachers College, Columbia

A Distinctive Addition to *Educating America's Children*:

- The New Scott, Foresman Professional Series

PSYCHOLOGY and TEACHING

by William C. Morse and
G. Max Wingo, University of Michigan

(including a Reference Manual of *Basic Findings and Concepts of General Psychology*)

- *Consulting Editor*: GORDON C. MACKENZIE
  Teachers College, Columbia
- *Reference Manual*: GEORGE E. BRIGGS
  Ohio State University

Write for brochure to:

SCOTT, FORESMAN AND COMPANY

120 East 23rd Street
New York 10, New York

1900 Pollitt Drive
Fair Lawn, New Jersey

THE NEGRO WOMAN'S COLLEGE EDUCATION. By JEANNE L. NOBLE, City College of New York. Teachers College Studies in Education. 208 pages, $4.25.

What do Negro women most need to get out of college? How well do the colleges meet these needs? The author presents and interprets answers of more than 400 Negro women to these and important related questions. These women, residents of six different sections of the country, are graduates of women's colleges and coeducational colleges. Dr. Noble points up findings that are pertinent to problems of integration and offers data, interpretations, and suggestions that will be helpful to college officials in their work with Negro students and their curricula.

PLANNING FUNCTIONAL COLLEGE HOUSING. By HAROLD C. RIKER, University of Florida. Teachers College Studies in Education. 240 pages. Illus. $4.50.

This practical discussion of student housing was written especially for school administrators, architects, and trustees. It describes essential planning requirements and procedures in terms of their contribution to the educational program. The author urges functional planning of residence halls based on educational and social uses. His long experience in actually planning, building, and operating residence halls is reflected in this book, and the various types of floor plans presented will be helpful to those concerned with current expansion in college housing facilities.

BUREAU OF PUBLICATIONS
Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27

THE CLEARING HOUSE

is the *working partner* of the principal

—but there's something
in every issue for *every faculty member!*

For the Principal: CH is the working partner of the principal because it is devoted primarily to reporting best current *practices* in school administration and curriculum, and to keeping principals informed of developments in the junior and senior high school subject areas. Each issue contains a prodigious amount of useful information on the principal's primary concern—*the educational program of his school.*

For the Faculty: In addition to the reports on courses and teaching methods in various subjects, each issue contains articles of general interest to all in the junior and senior high school program. CH features and departments are written and presented with a sparkle that raises professional reading to the point of entertainment.

Sample copy sent on request

Subscription price $4.50 a year

THE CLEARING HOUSE

Published monthly September through May

by

Fairleigh Dickinson University

Teaneck, New Jersey

Two New Films for Elementary School . . .

KEYBOARD EXPERIENCES IN CLASSROOM MUSIC. Directed by Robert Pace, Teachers College, Columbia, and Daniel Hooley, Georgia State College, Statesboro. 2 reels, 16 mm. black and white, sound, 20 mins. $75.00*

Music time in a third grade class in a public school is the setting of this film. Four sequences show the children and teacher (not a music specialist) *using the silent keyboard* as they sing a familiar song; along with piano, autoharp, and bells to accompany a dance song; to learn a new song; and to help create the melody for an Indian dance.

Keyboard Experiences is designed for use by elementary school teachers (pre-service and in-service), music consultants, curriculum consultants and school administrators, parents and other interested lay groups. Among its objectives are the following: to give a clear understanding of the nature of keyboard experience, and of the materials and procedures involved; to show how keyboard experience relates to the total music program of the elementary school; to show that the classroom teacher can use the piano as a resource instrument rather than merely one to accompany songs; to demonstrate that the silent keyboard can give children sensory experience with key signatures, half and whole steps, chords, and the like.

INDIVIDUALIZING READING INSTRUCTION IN THE CLASSROOM. Script by Irene Vite. Supervision by Alice Miel, Teachers College, Columbia. 2 reels, 16 mm., black and white. $90.00*

Shows first graders making rapid progress in learning to read through an individualized approach. Four readers have their time alone with the teacher—a time to read from books they have selected—while the other children in the class proceed with an activity period of their own planning. The audience sees how the teacher tests the four children's grasp of main ideas, helps with word attack and phonics, and encourages fluency in oral reading.

This film will prove especially helpful to elementary school teachers (pre-service and in-service), reading specialists, curriculum workers, administrators, and parents.

Produced by

BUREAU OF PUBLICATIONS
Teachers College, Columbia University
New York 27, N. Y.

* *To rent a print* of this film, consult your local educational film library.